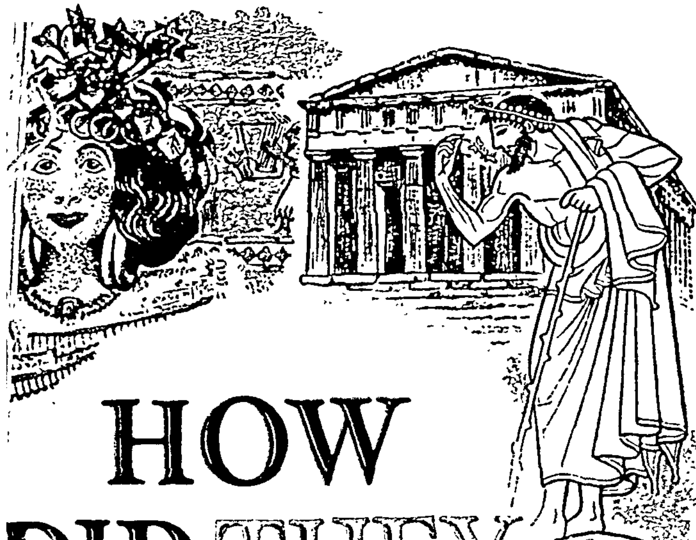


HOW DID THEY LIVE?

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in the hollows formed by the old watercourses, and are utilized by embankments and artificial channels for fertilizing the neighbouring fields.

The general aspect of the District may be briefly described as follows:—Starting from the present banks of the Chenáb and Sutlej rivers, is a strip of land subject to the annual overflow of those rivers during the rains. This strip extends inland about three miles from the Sutlej, and rather further from the banks of the Chenáb and Rávi. This tract is intersected by the canals, but does not generally receive much canal water. Beyond this riverain strip comes a belt of higher land where wells can be sunk without difficulty, the water being from 20 to 30 feet below the surface; and canal irrigation is also generally plentiful. The breadth of this belt depends chiefly on the canals. Where there are none, as in most parts of Sarái Sidhu *tahsil*, it is not more than four or five miles across; along the Chenáb, where the canals run almost parallel with the river, it is six or seven miles; and along the Sutlej, where the canals strike more inland, it is upwards of ten miles. Farther inland and extending up to the *bár*, the country is known as the Rávi. Where water is reached by the canals the cultivation is good; but where there are no canals, it is only in favourable hollow spots where drainage water collects that wells can be worked with any profit. Filling the centre of the District comes the barren plateau of the *bár*. The *bár* lands are principally available for pasture; and the proceeds of the grazing tax form an important item of Government revenue. The sale of *ghi* (clarified butter) is a lucrative source of income to the pastoral tribes. The only valuable articles of jungle produce are *sajji*, an impure carbonate of soda, saltpetre and vegetable dyes. *Kankar*, or nodular limestone, is found in certain localities sparsely scattered over the surface. Of wild animals, wolves are very common; and during the five years ending 1882 £133 was paid in the shape of rewards for the destruction of 350 wolves.

History.—The city now known as Multán probably bore in the earliest times the name of Kasyapapura, derived from Kasyapa, father of the Adityas and Daityas, the Sun gods and Titans of Hindu mythology. Under various Hellenic forms of this ancient designation, Multán figures in the works of Hecataeus, Herodotus and Ptolemy. General Cunningham believes that the Kaspeiraea of the last named author, being the capital of the Kaspeiraei whose dominions extended from Kashmir (Cashmere) to Muttra, must have been the principal city in the Punjab towards the 2nd century of our era. Five hundred years earlier, Multan appears in the history of Alexander's invasion as the chief seat of the Malli, whom the Macedonian conqueror utterly subdued after a desperate resistance. He left Philip as Satrap at Multan itself, but it seems probable that the Hellenic power in this distant

quarter soon came to an end, as the country appears shortly afterwards to have passed under the rule of the Gupta dynasty of Magadha. At a later period, Greek influence may once more have extended to Múltán under the Bactrian kings, whose coins are occasionally found in the District. The early Arab geographers mention Múltán as forming part of the kingdom of Sind, ruled over by the famous Rájá Chach. During his reign, the well-known Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, Hiuen Tsiang, visited Múltán, where he found a golden image of the sun, from which General Cunningham derives the modern name of the city, though other authorities connect it rather with that of the Malli.

Sind early fell a prey to the aggressive Muhammadan power, and Múltán District, like the rest of the kingdom, was conquered for the Khalifat by Muhammad Kásim. During the decline of the Khalifs, their influence naturally grew weak in the remote Province of Sind; and about the close of the 9th century, two independent kingdoms sprang up, with their capitals at Mansura and Múltán. A native Arab dynasty of Amírs continued to reign over the country about the junction of the Chenáb and the Sutlej, until the rise of the Ghazní Empire.

In 1005, Sultán Mahmúd laid siege to Múltán city, and having conquered it, with the whole of Sind, continued thereafter to appoint the governors. After passing for a time under the dynasties of Sumra and Ghor, the District regained a brief independence in 1442, under Sháikh Yusaf, an officer appointed by the people themselves. But when the Mughal princes consolidated the whole of Upper India into a single Empire, Múltán passed under their wider sway; and it remained the capital of one of their *subahs* till the imperial organization fell to pieces. On Nádir Sháh's invasion in 1738-39, Zahíd Khán, a Sadozai Afghán, was appointed by Muhammad Sháh to be Nawáb of Múltán. He founded a family which long continued to rule in the Bári Doáb, in spite of frequent interruptions by Maráthás and Afgháns.

The history of the District during the latter half of the 18th century comprises the usual tangled details of Sikh and Muhammadan dynastic revolutions and internal warfare. At length, in 1779, Muzaffar Khán, one of the Sadozai family, succeeded in obtaining the governorship of Múltán. Though constantly harassed by the Bhangi Sikhs, he managed to develop considerably the resources of his Province. Ranjít Singh several times attacked his capital, but was compelled to retire. At length, in June 1818, the Sikhs conquered the city, after a long siege, by a desperate assault, in the course of which Muzaffar Khán was slain, with five of his sons.

After passing rapidly through the hands of two or three Sikh

governors, Multán District was made over in 1829 to the famous Sáwan Mall, together with the modern Districts of Dera Ismail Khán, Dera Ghází Khan, Muzaffargarh, and Jhang. The whole country had almost assumed the aspect of a desert from frequent warfare and spoliation; but Diwan Sáwan Mall induced new inhabitants to settle in his Province, excavated numerous canals, favoured commerce, and restored prosperity to the desolated tract. After the death of Ranjít Singh, however, quarrels took place between Sáwan Mall and the Kashmir Rájá; and on the 11th of September 1844 the former was fatally shot in the breast by a soldier. His son Múlráj succeeded to his governorship, and also to his quarrel with the authorities at Lahore. Their constant exactions at last induced him to tender his resignation. After the establishment of the Council of Regency at Lahore, as one of the results of the first Sikh war, difficulties arose between the Diwán Múlraj and the British officials, which culminated in the murder of two British officers, and finally led to the Múltán rebellion. That episode, together with the second Sikh war, belongs rather to imperial than to local history. It ended in the capture of Múltán and the annexation of the whole of the Punjab by the British. The city offered a resolute defence, but, being stormed on 2nd January 1849, fell after severe fighting; and though the fort held out for a short time longer, it was surrendered at discretion by Múlráj on the 22nd January. Múlráj was put upon his trial for the murder of our officials, and, being found guilty, was sentenced to death; but this penalty was afterwards commuted for that of transportation. The District at once passed under direct British rule.

Population.—The first regular Census in 1855 returned the number of inhabitants of Múltán District at 411,386. That of 1868 disclosed a total population of 472,268, showing an increase of 60,882, or 14.7 per cent., in the thirteen years ending 1868. At the last enumeration in 1881, the population of the District was returned at 551,964, or a further increase of 79,696, or 16.9 per cent., between 1868 and 1881. This increase is largely due to immigration, caused by the immense development of canal irrigation in late years.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 5880 square miles, with 6 towns and 1287 villages; number of houses, 117,098, of which 93,599 were occupied, and 23,499 unoccupied; number of families, 115,847. Total population, 551,964, namely, males 304,517, and females 247,447. Proportion of males in total population 55.2 per cent. The average density of the population throughout the District is returned at 94 per square mile. It must, however, be remembered that nearly half the whole area consists of great pasturage grounds, the property of Government, and scantily inhabited by nomad graziers. The area included

within village boundaries is only 2922 square miles, and on that area the density of population is 188 per square mile. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 119,528, and girls 101,141; total children, 220,669, or 40 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 184,989, and females 146,306; total adults, 331,295, or 60 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, Muhammadans numbered 435,901, or 78·9 per cent. of the District population, while the Hindus are returned at 112,001, or 20·3 per cent. The remainder is made up of—Sikhs, 2085; Christians, 1861; Pársís, 63; Jains, 47; and 'others,' 6. In the following return of the principal castes and tribes, it must be remembered that nearly every caste, although generally possessing a dominating preponderance of one religion, also includes many members of other religions. Thus, the Játs, numbering 102,952, and the Rájputs 59,627, are almost entirely Muhammadans, with a sprinkling of Hindus; while the Aroras (76,842), Bráhmans (4183), and Khattris (9798) are almost exclusively Hindus, with a slight Muhammadan element. The other leading tribes and castes (including both Muhammadans and Hindus) are—Chuhra, 29,489; Arain, 23,981; Juláha, 23,753; Mochí, 16,596; Kumbhar, 13,716; Tarkhán, 11,915; Charhoa, 11,452; Machhí, 9610; Mirási, 7510; Nai, 6035; Kassab, 5914; and Khojah, 5640. The Muhammadan population by race, as distinguished from descendants of converts, comprises Baluchís, 18,547; Shaikhs, 12,649; Patháns, 9067; Sayyids, 8908; Mughals, 4601; and Dáúdputras, 1315. According to sect, the Muhammadans are returned as follows:—Sunnís, 431,656; Shiás, 3830; Wahábís, 79; and unspecified, 336. The Christian population numbered 1861, of whom 1709 are Europeans, 110 Eurasians, and only 42 Natives.

Town and Rural Population, etc.—Múltán District contains 6 municipal towns—namely, MULTAN CITY, population 68,674; SHUJABAD, 6458; KAHROR, 4804; JALALPUR, 3875; TALAMBA, 2231; and DUNYAPUR, 2041. These towns contain a total urban population of 88,083, or 15·9 per cent. of the District population. Of the 1293 towns and villages comprising Múltán District in 1881, 997 contained less than five hundred inhabitants; 189 from five hundred to a thousand; 88 from one to two thousand; 11 from two to three thousand; 6 from three to five thousand; and 2 upwards of five thousand. The villages are nearly all situated in the irrigated lowland tracts bordering the great rivers, the sterile *bár* tract containing only a nomadic population of graziers. As regards occupation, the Census Report returned the adult male population under the following seven main classes:—(1) Professional class, including all Government officials and servants, civil and military, 9717; (2) domestic and menial class, 5304; (3) commercial and trading class, including carriers, 11,500;

(4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 74,943, (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 46,393, (6) indefinite and non productive class, 23 659, (7) unspecified, 13,473 The language of the great majority of the population is a dialect known as Jatki or Multání, classed by many as a dialect of Sindhi, between which language and Punjabi it occupies an intermediate position Numerous ruins occur throughout the District Those at ATARI have been identified by General Cunningham with the 'City of the Brachmans, taken by Alexander during his invasion of India.

Agriculture —The returns of 1883–84 state the total area under assessment for land revenue at 3 785,361 acres. Of this area, 518 622 acres were returned as under cultivation 3 021 277 acres as grazing land, or land capable of being brought under cultivation and 245 462 acres as uncultivable waste Cultivation has steadily though not rapidly increased since the British annexation The character of the agriculture remains slovenly as the Jat tribes who compose the mass of the rural population have not yet lost their predatory and pastoral propensities Only where Hindu capitalists of the Arora, Khattri, or Baniyá castes have obtained a hold upon the soil, does the husbandry reach even the ordinary standard of the Punjab plains Ill ploughed land, seldom manured, sown with seed broadcast, and producing thin or irregular crops, shows a marked contrast to the fertility which might naturally be expected in a District, the cultivated portions of which are so abundantly irrigated Near the city, however, capitalist farmers have brought their estates to a high state of cultivation The creaking of the wooden Persian wheel, worked by bullocks, and lifting a steady supply of water from the wells, may be incessantly heard around Multán, from before daybreak to long after dusk

The area under various crops in 1883–84 (including lands bearing double crops), for the two great harvests of the year, is returned as follows —*Rabi*—Wheat, 237,912, *jowár*, 58,958, barley, 4801, gram 11,050, peas, 78 514, *masuri*, 3293, oil seeds, 5005, drugs and spices, 1231, miscellaneous, 49 067 acres *Kharif*— Rice, 13 209 acres, *bájra*, 12,224, *china*, 3598, other cereals, 525, pulses, 4099, oil seeds (*til*), 12,978, cotton, 34 413, indigo, 62,392, sugar-cane, 2953, and miscellaneous, 495 acres Of these, indigo forms the most important commercial staple, its cultivation having been largely encouraged by the Diwan Sáwan Mall, and later by the British Government With the exception of one small European concern, there are no indigo factories in Multán Each well, where indigo is grown, has its own vats, the manufacture is carried out on the spot by the *zamindár* and his assistants, and the dye, made up into balls, is bought by traders who come in the cold weather from Bombay and Kabul Sugar-cane forms a very valuable crop, but with the exception

of a little grown in the neighbourhood of Múltán city as fodder for the Commissariat elephants, its cultivation is confined to a few villages in Shújábád *tahsíl*. Cotton occupies a considerable proportion of the *kharif* area, but it is grown almost entirely for home consumption. The average produce per acre of the various crops was returned as follows in 1883:—Rice, 800 lbs.; indigo, 31 lbs.; cotton, 104 lbs.; wheat, 752 lbs.; inferior grains, 472 lbs.

Irrigation extends over 326,057 acres from Government canal works, and over 97,732 acres supplied by private enterprise, mainly from wells. Rents are almost universally paid in kind. Unskilled labourers are paid at the rate of from 3¾d. to 9d. per diem, while skilled labourers receive from 1s. to 1s. 6d. The average prices of food-grains for twenty years ending 1882 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 15½ *sers* per rupee, or 7s. 3d. per cwt.; barley, 22¾ *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 11d. per cwt.; gram, 19¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 8½d. per cwt.; *bájra*, 20½ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 5½d. per cwt.; and *joár*, 20¾ *sers* per rupee, or 5s. 5d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The city of Múltán forms the great commercial centre of the District, but there are also *bázárs* at Shújábád, Kahror, Sarái Sidhu, Talamba, Lodhrán, Jalálpur, and other smaller towns. Thence the surplus produce of the District finds its way to the markets of MULTAN CITY (*q.v.*). The chief articles of trade are sugar and indigo from the lowlands, and wool and *ghí* from the pasture lands of the *bár*. Silk and fine cotton fabrics are produced at Múltán; coarse cotton cloth for home consumption is woven in every village. Indigo is also largely manufactured from the raw material. Woollen and cotton pile carpets are largely manufactured in Múltán city, which has also a wide reputation for its blue and green glazed pottery, and enamel work. The Múltán branch of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, opened in 1864, connects the city with the Northern Punjab, and has its terminus at Ramuwálá, a temporary station on the left bank of the Chenáb, two miles beyond Sher Sháh. The intermediate stations on the line within Múltán District are Channu, Kacha-khú, Khanewálá, Rashida, Tatipur, Múltán City and Cantonments, Muzaffarábád junction, and Sher Sháh; total length, 74 miles. The Indus Valley State Railway, opened for traffic in 1878, starts from Múltán cantonments, and makes use of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway as far as Muzaffarábád junction, whence it runs south, with stations at Buch, Shújábád, Gelewálá, Lodhrán, and Adamwáhan, where it leaves Múltán District, after a course of 61 miles, by the Empress bridge over the Sutlej, and passes into Bahávalpur State. The Government telegraph line from Lahore to Karáchi (Kurrachee) passes through Múltán, and a branch line goes to Dera Ghází Khán. Telegraph lines also run along the whole length of the railway, with offices at each station. The principal lines of road radiate from Múltán to Sher Sháh, Jhang,

Lahore, Mailsi, Kahror, Baháwalpur, and Sukkur, with numerous branch lines and cross country tracks Total length of metalled roads, 51 miles, unmetalled roads, 1131 miles Water communication is afforded by the Sutlej, Chenab, and Ravi rivers, which are navigable throughout the whole of their length of 245 miles With the exception of the railway bridge over the Sutlej, none of the rivers are bridged, but there are ferries at all the chief crossings

Administration—The District is under the control of the Commissioner of the Multan Division, who is stationed at Multan city The ordinary head-quarters staff of the District comprises a Deputy Commissioner, with a Judicial Assistant, an Assistant Commissioner, and two extra Assistant Commissioners besides the usual fiscal, constabulary, and medical officers Each *tahsil* is in charge of a *tahsildár*, assisted by a *naib tahsildár*, with a village staff of petty revenue officers There are two *munsifs*, or subordinate civil judges, both of whom hold their courts at Múltán city, and exercise jurisdiction over the whole District The executive staff is supplemented by a cantonment magistrate, and a bench of honorary magistrates in the city The total imperial revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £92,042, of which sum the land tax contributed £65,486 In 1883-84, the total land revenue of the District was returned at £102,715, of which £56,282 was derived from the direct land tax The other principal items are grazing dues, salt, customs, and stamps The total direct income of the 'Lower Sutlej and Chenáb Inundation Canals' Division in 1873-74 amounted to £12,147 A small provincial and local revenue is also raised in the District In 1883, the number of civil and revenue judges amounted to 13, and that of magistrates to 22 The imperial police force in 1883 consisted of 646 men of all ranks, supplemented by a municipal police of 233 men, and a cantonment constabulary of 38 men Besides these there is a force of 604 village *chaukidárs* or rural police, who are maintained by a cess levied on the villagers The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property numbered 1521 policemen, being 1 to every 3 8 square miles of the area and every 362 of the population Besides the District jail and lock up for the criminals of the District there is also a central jail at Multán, which receives long term prisoners from other parts of the Division The total number of inmates in both jails in 1883 was 4630, and the daily average 1313

Education remains in a very backward state, the Muhammadan population being especially apathetic in this matter In 1881, the Census returned the number of children receiving instruction at 7241, of whom the Hindus contributed 48 per cent, though they only amount to 20 per cent of the whole population The total number of schools under the supervision of the Education Depart

ment in Múltán District in 1883-84 was 70. Of these 9 are represented by the District school and its branches in Múltán city, 1 is the railway school for Europeans and Eurasians, 4 are aided missionary boys' schools, and 4 are aided missionary girls' schools. All the others are vernacular schools, 2 of the middle and 50 of the primary grade. The total number of pupils attending these schools in 1883-84 was 3924, with an average attendance of 3080. Besides these, there were 8 indigenous schools, with 148 pupils inspected by the Department. The uninspected indigenous schools include 304 schools where the Kurán alone is taught; 122 schools where Persian is taught together with the Kurán; 18 Sanskrit schools; 13 Arabic schools; 10 Maháiani or commercial schools, where a high standard of arithmetic is taught; and 7 Gurmukhi schools.

For fiscal and administrative purposes, the District is divided into 5 *tahsíls*, having their head-quarters at Múltán, Shujábád, Lodhrán, Mailsi, and Sarái Sidhu. The 6 municipal towns of MULTAN, SHUJABAD, KAHROR, TULAMBA, JALALPUR, and DANYAPUR had an aggregate revenue, in 1883-84, of £11,767, being at the average rate of 2s. 8d. per head of the population (88,083) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Múltán is proverbial, even among the hot and dusty Punjab plains, for its heat and dust in the dry season, although the cold weather is very pleasant. The annual mean temperature is about 77° F. In 1883, the thermometer in May ranged from a maximum of 111·9° to a minimum of 68·2°; in July, from a maximum of 105·9° to a minimum of 72·8°; and in December, from a maximum of 75·9° to a minimum of 37·0°. The average annual rainfall is returned by the Meteorological Department at 7·17 inches, that for 1883 being 6·5 inches. The total number of deaths reported in 1883 was 16,530, being at the rate of 30 per thousand, of which 11,508 were assigned to fevers. The District contains 6 Government charitable dispensaries, which afforded relief in 1883 to 30,033 persons, of whom 1026 were in-patients. [For further information regarding Múltán, see the *Gazetteer of Múltán District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1884); the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Múltán.—*Tahsíl* in Múltán District, Punjab, stretching from the bank of the Chenab. Area, 940 square miles, with 287 towns and villages, 31,511 houses, and 16,147 families. Population (1868) 138,272; (1881) 170,610, namely, males 95,374, and females 75,236. Increase of population since 1868, 32,338, or 23·3 per cent., in thirteen years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 122,831; Hindus, 44,950; Sikhs, 935; Jains, 46; Parsis, 63; Christians, 1763; and 'others,' 4. Of the 287

towns and villages, 225 contain less than five hundred inhabitants, and 38 between five hundred and a thousand, while only 24 contain a population exceeding a thousand souls The average area under cultivation for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned at 190 square miles, or 121,602 acres, the area under the principal crops being as follows —Wheat, 44,433 acres, *joár*, 12,672 acres, cotton, 12,096 acres, indigo, 6941 acres, *bajra*, 5993 acres, rice, 4864 acres, barley, 2616 acres, gram, 2457 acres, and vegetables, 7159 acres Revenue of the *tahsil*, £17,450 The administrative staff, including the officers attached to the Divisional and District head-quarters, comprises 1 Commissioner, 1 Deputy Commissioner, 1 Judicial Assistant Commissioner, 3 Assistant or extra Assistant Commissioners, 1 Small Cause Court Judge, 1 *tahsildár*, 2 *munsifs*, and 1 honorary magistrate These officers preside over 10 civil and 9 criminal courts Number of police circles (*thánas*), 3, strength of regular police, 244 men village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 95

Multán (*Mooltán*)—City, municipality, and administrative headquarters of Multán District, Punjab, situated in lat 30° 12 N, and long 71° 30′ 45″ E, on a mound, the accumulated debris of ages, at a distance of four miles from the present left bank of the Chenáb, enclosed on three sides by a wall from 10 to 20 feet in height, but open towards the south, where the dry bed of the old Ravi intervenes between the town and citadel As late as the days of Timúr, the Ravi seems to have flowed past Múltán, joining the Chenab 10 miles lower down, and the original site consisted of two islands, which are now picturesquely crowned by the city and citadel, at an elevation of some 50 feet above the surrounding country The fortifications were dismantled in 1854, but the fort still remains a place of some strength, and is occupied by a European garrison Large and irregular suburbs have grown up outside the wall since the annexation in 1849 Within the city proper, one broad *bazár*, the Chauk, runs from the Husáin gate for a quarter of a mile into the centre of the city, ending at the Walí Muhammad gate, from which three broad streets lead to the various gates of the city The other streets are narrow and tortuous, often ending in *culs-de sac*

Multán is a town of great antiquity, being identified with the capital of the Malli, whom Alexander conquered in his invasion of the Punjab, but the history of the city is included in that of MULTAN DISTRICT The principal buildings include the shrines of the Muhammadan saints, Baha ud-din and Rukhn ul alam (of the Arab tribe of Koresh, to which the Prophet belonged), which stand in the citadel Close by are the remains of an ancient Hindu temple of the Narasinha Avatar of Vishnu, called Pahladpuri, partially blown down by the explosion of the powder magazine during the siege of 1848-49 The great temple of

the Sun, from which General Cunningham derives the name of the city, once occupied the very middle of the citadel, but was destroyed during the reign of the zealous Musalmán Emperor Aurangzeb, who erected a Jamá Masjid or 'cathedral mosque' in its place. This mosque afterwards became the powder magazine of the Sikhs, and was blown up as mentioned above.

The population in Múltán city and suburbs (excluding the cantonments), in 1868, was 43,385, or including cantonments, 54,652. In 1881, the total population of the city and suburbs was 57,471, namely, males 31,088, and females 26,383, or including cantonments, 68,674, of whom 38,988 were males and 29,686 females. Classified according to religion, the total population of the city and cantonments in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans, 36,294; Hindus, 29,962; Sikhs, 661; Jains, 46; and 'others' (mainly the European civil and military population), 1711. Number of houses, 12,617. Municipal revenue in 1875-76, £8240; in 1883-84, £10,214, or 3s. 6¾d. per head of population (57,471) within municipal limits.

The civil station of Múltán, which lies north and west of the city proper, contains a court-house and treasury, Commissioner's offices, the dwellings of the civil residents, jail, post-office, church, telegraph office, dispensary, staging bungalow, and municipal hall with clock-tower. Besides the public institutions, there is a branch of the Arya Samáj in the city, which numbers about 100 members. There are two railway stations at Múltán, one at the city, and one at the cantonments. Within the fort, and overlooking the town, is the plain, massive obelisk, 70 feet in height, erected in memory of Mr. Vans Agnew and Lieutenant Anderson, two British officers, murdered in April 1848, at the outbreak of Múlráj's rebellion. The Church Missionary Society maintains a station at Múltán. East of the city is the Amkhás, formerly the audience hall and garden house of the Hindu governors of Múltán, now used as the *tahsílí* building. North of this is the cenotaph of the Díwán Sáwan Mall, and the European cemetery. A fine public garden lies to the west of the city.

As a trade centre, Múltán ranks of first importance, being connected by rail with Lahore and Karáchi; and by the Rávi, Jehlam (Jhelum), and Chenáb with the whole central Punjab. It therefore collects into a focus all the trade of the Province with Karáchi (Kurrachee), and, through Karáchi, with Europe. Large quantities of raw produce were formerly shipped by country boats and by the steamers of the Indus flotilla, and of the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway, from Sher Sháh, the port of Múltán, to Karáchi; but the steamer service has ceased since the opening throughout of the Indus Valley State Railway. The local merchants correspond with firms in all parts of the Punjab, west of the Sutlej, and in most of the

smaller towns with any export trade, and there is probably no large firm at Lahore, Amritsar, Jalandhar, Pind Dadan Khán, or even Bhiwáni and Delhi, which has not its agents at Multan

The trade of Multan comprises every article of produce, manufacture, and consumption in the whole Province, the chief imports being cotton and other piece goods, while the main staples of export are sugar, cotton, indigo, and wool Leaving out of consideration what the city requires for its own use, the use of Multán as a trade centre seems to be to collect cotton, wheat, wool, oil seeds, sugar, and indigo from the surrounding country, and to export them to the south to receive fruits, drugs, raw silk, and spices from Kandahar traders, and to pass them on to the east The Afghán traders take back indigo, European and country cotton cloth, sugar, and shoes Multán receives European piece goods and European wares generally, and distributes them to the western Districts and in its own neighbourhood. The total value of the imports, as shown in the municipal returns for 1881–82, was £871,435, and of the exports, £400,121 The chief local manufactures are silk and cotton weaving and carpet making, country shoes are also made in large quantities for exportation The glazed pottery and enamel work of Multán, although not industries on a large scale, have a high reputation

Multán—Cantonment in Multán District, Punjab, 1½ mile east of the city Lat 30° 11′ 15″ N, long 71° 28′ E Population (1881) 11,203, namely, males 7900, and females 3303 Usually occupied by a European regiment of infantry and a battery of artillery, and by two regiments of Native infantry See previous article

Múltan—Town in Dhar State, Bhopawar Agency, Central India, situated on the Ratlam Dhar road, 5 miles from Badnáwar and 36 from Dhar city The residence of a *thakur* or chief, who is related to the Rahtor Rájput chiefs of Ratlam State, and on this account enjoys the high consideration of the people He holds 29 villages from Dhár State, for which he pays a tribute of £1804 The soil is rich, water is abundant, and opium and wheat are produced in considerable quantities Revenue of the chief, £6200

Mundargi—Town in Gadag Sub division, Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency Population (1881) 3826 Mundargi is situated at the base of a hill on which stands a ruined fort, about 24 miles south east of Gadag town Its position on the Nizám's frontier has helped it to grow into a large market town Post-office, and two schools with 365 pupils in 1883–84

Mundhri—Town in Tarorá *tahsíl*, Bhandárá District, Central Provinces Population (1881) 2314, namely, Hindus, 2046, Kabirpanthís, 124, Muhammadans, 92, and aboriginal tribes, 52

Mundlána—Town in Gohana *tahsíl*, Rohtak District, Punjab,

situated on the Goháná-Pánípat road, 6 miles from Goháná town. Population (1881) 5469, namely, 5130 Hindus, 288 Muhammadans, and 51 Jains. A large agricultural village rather than a town, possessing no commercial or administrative importance. Post-office and school.

Mundra.—Port in the Native State of Cutch (Kachchh), Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 22° 48′ 40″ N., and long. 69° 52′ 30″ E., on the coast of the Gulf of Cutch, 29 miles south of Bhúj, the capital of the State. Population (1872) 7952; (1881) 8900, namely, 4189 males and 4711 females. Hindus numbered 3241; Muhammadans, 4350; Jains, 1307; and 'others,' 2. There is no made road from the port to the town, which is 3½ miles distant. The fort, which is situated 2½ miles north of the port, contains a white mosque distinguishable a good way off.

Mungapákam (*Munagapáka*).—Village in Anakápalli *táluk*, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 38′ N., and long. 83° 3′ 30″ E., in the fertile proprietary estate of Mungapákam. Population (1881) 5267. Number of houses, 1230. Hindus numbered 5215, and Muhammadans 52. The estate originally comprised 8 villages, paying a *peshkash* (revenue) of £2465, but has now been incorporated with the estate of Anakápalli.

Mungelí.—Western *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Biláspur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1613 square miles; number of villages, 1212; houses, 89,713. Total population (1881) 322,117, namely, males 158,106, and females 164,011. Average density of population, 199·7 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsíl*, 511 square miles are comprised within the revenue-free estates (*zamíndáris*) of Pandaria and Kanteli, leaving an area of 1102 square miles, with a population of 243,391, forming the Government portion of the Sub-division. Even of this area, 283 square miles pay neither revenue nor quit-rent, and the total area assessed for Government revenue is only 818 square miles. Of these, 472 square miles are under cultivation, 283 square miles are cultivable but not under tillage, and 63 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses, £11,193, or an average of 8⅝d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £22,614, or an average of 1s. 5⅝d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, Mungelí *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, 2 police circles (*thánás*), 5 outpost stations (*chaukís*), a regular police force numbering 67 men, and a village watch of 780 *chaukídárs*.

Mungelí.—Town in Biláspur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Mungelí *tahsíl*; situated in lat. 22° 4′ N., and long. 81° 44′ E., 36 miles west of Biláspur town. Population (1881) 4757, namely, Hindus, 3568; Kabírpanthís, 417; Satnámís, 350; Muhammadans,

353, Jains, 4, and aboriginal tribes, 65 The river Agar winds round three sides of Mungeli, which lies on the direct road from Bilāspur to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and carries on an increasing trade in cereals, salt, and skins Police station house and town school 2 large markets are held weekly

Mungír —District, Sub division, and town in Bengal —*See* MONGHYR

Munír —Town in Ballia District, North Western Provinces —*See* MANIAR.

Munj —Village and ruins in Etawah District North Western Provinces, situated in lat 26° 53 45" N, and long 79° 12 1" E, on a plain 14 miles north east of Etawah town Population (1881) 2391 Large mound, identified by Mr Hume with the Munj taken by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1017, after a desperate resistance on the part of the Rájput garrison Local tradition connects the site with the wars of the Pándavas and the Kauravas, chronicled in the *Mahábhárata*, when the Rajá of Munj and his two sons fought on the side of Rajá Yudhishthira The position of the great gateway and traces of two bastions are still pointed out Curious square well built of sculptured blocks The mound forms an inexhaustible quarry of ancient bricks, from which the villagers construct their huts

Munjpur —Petty State in Kathiawar, Bombay Presidency —*See* MUJPUR

Munoli. —Town in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency —*See* MANOLI

Munshíganj —Sub-division of Dacca District, Bengal Area 401 square miles, with 825 villages and 58,614 houses Population (1881) males 241,441, and females 278,006, total, 519 447 Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 275,379, Hindus, 244 088, and Christians, 30 Average density of population, 1295 persons per square mile, villages per square mile, 2 06, persons per village, 630, houses per square mile, 150, persons per house, 8 8 This Sub division consists of the 2 police circles of Munshiganj and Srinagar In 1883 it contained 4 civil and magisterial courts, a regular police of 52 men, and a village watch of 861 men

Munyeru —River in Kistna District, Madras Presidency One of the large affluents of the Kistna river, rising in the Nizam's Dominions, and joining the main stream about 20 miles above the anicut at Bezwada It crosses the high road to Haidarabád (Hyderabád), 25 miles from, and north west by west of, Bezwáda It is fordable, except for a few days in the rainy season

Murádábád —District, *tahsil*, and town in the North Western Provinces.—*See* MORADABAD

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Munj.—Village and ruins in Etawah District, North-Western Provinces, situated in lat. 26° 53′ 45″ N. and long. 79° 12′ 1″ E., on a plain 14 miles north-east of Etawah town. Population (1881) 2391. Large mound, identified by Mr. Hume with the Munj taken by Mahmud of Ghazni in 1017 after a desperate resistance on the part of the Rájput garrison. Local tradition connects the site with the wars of the Pándavas and the Kauravas, chronicled in the *Mahábhárata*, when the Raja of Munj and his two sons fought on the side of Rájá Yudhishthira. The position of the great gateway and traces of two bastions are still pointed out. Curious square well built of sculptured blocks. The mound forms an inexhaustible quarry of ancient bricks, from which the villagers construct their huts.

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Munshíganj.—Sub-division of Dacca District, Bengal. Area, 401 square miles, with 825 villages and 58,614 houses. Population (1881) males 241,441, and females 278,006; total, 519,447. Classified according to religion, there were—Muhammadans, 275,329, Hindus, 244,088, and Christians, 30. Average density of population, 1295 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 2·06; persons per village, 630; houses per square mile, 150; persons per house, 8·8. This Sub-division consists of the 2 police circles of Munshiganj and Srinagar. In 1883 it contained 4 civil and magisterial courts, a regular police of 52 men, and a village watch of 861 men.

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Murádabad.—District, *tahsil*, and town in the North-Western Provinces.—*See* MORADABAD.

Muradabad.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, [illegible] 36 [illegible]

from Unao town, and 19 from Safipur, on the Hardoi road. Said to have been founded about 300 years ago by Murád Sher Khán, after whom the place is named. Population (1881) 4149, namely, 2945 Hindus and 1204 Musalmáns, residing in 50 brick and 930 mud houses. Bi-weekly market, and 3 annual religious fairs; vernacular school.

Murádnagar.—Village in Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces. Distant from Meerut city 18 miles south-west, and a station on the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway. Population (1881) 4393, namely, Muhammadans, 2487, and Hindus, 1906. Founded 300 years ago by Mírzá Muhammad Marád Mughal, whose mausoleum still exists. Large *sarái* built by founder; school, police station, post-office. A weekly market is held every Tuesday.

Murarái.—Village in Murshidábád District, Bengal; from which the greater part of the *áman* rice crop, almost exclusively produced in the Rárh or western half of the District, is exported to Calcutta. Lat. 24° 27′ 15″ N., long. 87° 54′ E. Murarái is a station on the East Indian Railway, distant from Calcutta (Howrah) 155 miles.

Murassapur.—Town in Partábgarh (Pratápgarh) District, Oudh; 4 miles from Mánikpur, on the road from that place to Rái Bareli. Population (1881) 1527, namely, 1013 Hindus and 514 Musalmáns. Adjoining this village is the *bázár* of Nawábganj, a flourishing grain mart, the annual sales at which amount to an average of £3300. Large fair on the occasion of the *Dasahara* festival, attended by about 30,000 people. Cotton-printing is carried on to a considerable extent. Government school.

Murbád.—Sub-division of Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 351 square miles, containing 171 villages. Population (1872) 57,203; (1881) 63,934, namely, males 32,842, and females 31,092, occupying 10,715 houses. Hindus number 61,814; Muhammadans, 1640; and 'others,' 480. The people are mostly Thákurs, Kolís, and Maráthás. Land revenue (1882), £9027. This Sub-division lies in the east of the District; most of it is very hilly, and fairly wooded. It is difficult of access, and suffers from the want of means of exporting its produce. The water supplied by wells is fairly good, but scanty. The climate is oppressive though not unhealthy; after the rains, however, it is feverish. Of the 351 square miles, 10¾ are occupied by the lands of alienated or part-alienated villages. The remainder contains 127,495 acres of cultivable land, 16,498 acres of Government forests, 61,072 acres of public pastures and forest lands, 7875 acres of grass, and 4820 acres of village sites, roads, ponds, and river-beds. Of the total area of the Government villages, 217,760 acres, alienated land in Government villages occupied 341 acres. In 1880–81, of 101,691 acres, the total area of occupied land, 50,272 acres were fallow. Of the

remaining 51,419 acres, 131 acres were twice cropped Grain crops occupied 42,714 acres, pulses, 4832 acres, oil seeds, 2663 acres, fibres, 1317, and miscellaneous crops, 24 acres In 1880 there were 7180 holdings with an average area of 14½ acres, and an average rental of £1, 5s 3½d In 1883 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, police circle (*thaná*) 1, regular police 51 men

Murdará —Town in Tirorá *tahsil*, Bhandára District, Central Provinces Population (1881) 2142 Hindus numbered 1755, Kabir panthís, 294, Muhammadans, 43, and aboriginal tribes 50

Murdeswar —Port in Honawár Sub-division, North Kanara District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 14° 6 N and long 74° 36 E, 13 miles south of Honawar, and in the Bhutkul *peta* The rocky promontory jutting out into the sea is crowned by a temple and a ruined fort, and at its foot, on the shore, is a small bungalow The port is the small bay to the south east of the rocks with the villages of Kaikiní and Mawalli adjacent Two schools Population (1881) 2185 Annual average value of trade during the five years ending 1881-82 — imports, £1999, exports, £1792 In 1881-82 the imports were valued at £1129, the exports at £660 Murdeswar is one of the six ports forming the Honáwár Customs Division

Murgod.—Town in the Parasgarh Sub division, Belgaum District, Bombay Presidency, situated 27 miles east of Belgáum town, in lat 15° 53 35″ N, and long 74° 58 10″ E Population (1881) 4895 Murgod is a considerable market for cotton and grain, and a small business is done in printing coarse cloth A fair is held annually, attended by 300 to 400 people Post office

Murliganj —Town in Bhágalpur District, Bengal, situated 12 miles east of Madahpura, on the Dáus river, which has now become the main channel of the Kusi Large *bazár* Near the village are numerous *ghâts* or landing places, used at different times of the year for the purposes of trade, according to the height of water in the river Imports—salt, spices, sugar, iron, and fine rice, exports—rice, oil seed, a little cotton, and coarse saltpetre

Murnad —Village in Coorg Southern India, situated on the Merkára Cannanore road 9 miles from Merkára. Head quarters of the Pórpattigar of Kauntmurnád Travellers' bungalow, and village school with 102 pupils Population (1881) 913

Murree (*Marri*) —Northern *tahsil* of Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab lying between 33° 41 30″ and 34° 5 15″ N lat, and between 73° 15 and 73° 38 E long, and comprising the forest clad range of hills on which the sanitarium of MURREE is built. The Murree chain of hills consists of a series of ridges, mostly of grey sandstone and red clay stretching south westward from the valley of the Jehlam (Jhelum) running south westward from the valley of the Jehlam (Jhelum) the northern borders of Ráwal Pindi District, the hills culminate

height of about 10,000 feet in the mountains beyond the Murree sanitarium, and stretching onwards into Hazárá, blend at last with the snowy ranges which shut in Kashmír.

Around Murree the scenery is rich and varied. The mountain-sides are clothed with forests of oak and pines, which are, as usual, most dense on their northern slopes; and these, set off by the rich valleys below, and the background of the snowy Kashmír ranges, form a prospect which cannot be equalled in many parts of the lower Himálayas. Farther south the hills change in aspect. They are less lofty and more irregular, but are still adorned by beautiful trees; their shapes become more diversified, the valleys broader, and there is more cultivation. The villages and hamlets are picturesquely placed on the hill-sides in nooks or on projecting spurs; while occasionally the ruins of an old castle recall the bygone splendours of a Ghakkar chief, or a fort the tyranny of the Sikhs. Still farther south, the trees are less lofty, and gradually give place to brushwood; the hills are rounded, and the scenery more tame and uniform. Gradually too, as the hills approach the southern frontier of the District, the length of the ranges grows less and less until, near the borders of Jehlam District, only a narrow line of upland separates the Jehlam river from the plains. The most northern of these parallel ranges within Ráwal Pindi District projects far out into the plains as an isolated ridge a few hundred feet in height. This ridge passes westwards about 10 miles to the north of Ráwal Pindi city, and ends in some stony eminences two miles west of the Márgalla pass and the Grand Trunk Road. At the Márgalla pass there is a handsome monument and fountain, erected to the memory of General John Nicholson, killed at the storming of Delhi. The monument can be seen for miles on either side of the pass; and the fountain, to which water is carried from a perennial spring, is a great boon to travellers. Here the range meets, or slightly overlaps, the extremity of another range of hills, that of the Chitta Pahár, which enters Ráwal Pindi District from the direction of the Indus.

Total area of Murree tahsíl, 210 square miles, with 92 towns and villages, 6299 houses, and 7168 families. Population (1881) 52,198, namely, males 28,235, and females 23,963. Classified according to religion, the population consisted of—Muhammadans, 48,620; Hindus, 1987; Sikhs, 775; Christians, 814; and Jains, 2. Of the 92 towns and villages, 70 contained less than five hundred inhabitants, 18 between five hundred and one thousand, while four had a population exceeding one thousand. Of the 210 square miles comprising the tahsíl, only 26 square miles, or 12 per cent., are returned as the average area under cultivation for the five years from 1877-78 to 1881-82, the principal crops being—Indian corn 8788 acres, and wheat 4083 acres. Revenue of the tahsíl, £763.

The administrative staff consists of an Assistant Commissioner and a *tahsildar*, who preside over 2 civil and 2 criminal courts Number of police circles (*thánas*), 2, strength of regular police force, 79 men, rural police (*chaukidárs*), 81 men

Murree (*Marri*) — Sanitarium and hill station in Rawal Pindi District, Punjab, and head quarters of Murree *tahsil* Lat 33° 54′ 30″ N, long 73° 26′ 30″ E Situated on a ridge of the MURREE HILLS, 7517 feet above sea level Murree forms the great northern sanitarium for the Punjab, and until 1877 was the ordinary summer resort of the local Government, which has now forsaken it for Simla The site was selected in 1850, almost immediately after the annexation of the Province, and building operations commenced at once In 1851, temporary accommodation was provided for a detachment of troops, and in 1853, permanent barracks were erected The station grew rapidly in size and population, and now attracts large numbers of visitors from Lahore, Ráwal Pindi, Peshawar, and the plains generally A road, passable throughout by wheeled conveyances, connects the sanitarium with Rawal Pindi city, distant about five hours' journey The houses crown the summit and sides of an irregular ridge, commanding magnificent views over forest clad hill sides, into deep valleys studded with villages and cultivated fields, with the snow-covered peaks of the Kashmir ranges as a background. Broad and easy roads intersect the station

The climate is well adapted to the constitution of Englishmen The lowest recorded temperature is 21° F, the highest 96° Earthquakes occur almost annually Epidemic cholera has twice appeared in 1858 it committed great ravages among the soldiers of the European depôt, in 1867 it attacked the native population and visitors Commissioner's, Assistant Commissioner's, and *tahsildar's* court, post and telegraph offices, branch treasury, charitable dispensary, four hotels, three kept by Europeans Churches of the Anglican, Presbyterian, and Roman Catholic denominations English and Pársi shops, branch of the Alliance Bank of Simla, Club, Assembly Rooms, Lawrence Memorial Asylum, for the education of sons and daughters of European soldiers A school for children of residents is transferred to Rawal Pindi during the cold weather A brewery established in 1860, the property of an English company, does an extensive business Brisk imports of food-stuffs during the summer months from Ráwal Pindi and Hazára Municipal revenue in 1883–84, £2089 During the height of the season, the population of Murree probably amounts to about eight thousand. The Census of February 1881, which was taken in the depth of winter, represents only the permanent population, and takes no account of visitors. That Census returned the population at 2489, namely, Muhammadans, 1374, Hindus, 702, Jains, 2, and 'others,' 411. Number of houses, 410

Murree Hills.—Range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, taking their name from the sanitarium which crowns one of their principal ridges; situated between 33° 53′ 30″ and 33° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 73° 25′ 15″ and 73° 26′ 30″ E. long. They form a series of lateral spurs of the Himálayan system, running down from the main Kashmir (Cashmere) and Hazárá chain at right angles towards the plains, with a general direction from north-east to south-west. The loftiest peaks, behind the sanitarium of Murree, attain a height of 10,000 feet. Thence they stretch down to the Murree ridge itself, whose highest portion, the Kashmir Point, has an elevation of 7517 feet above sea-level. The houses of European residents cover the space of 3½ miles to Pindi Point, 7266 feet in height. Farther south, the hills change in aspect. The rich and varied scenery of Murree, with its pine-clad mountains, deep glens, and distant glimpses of the snowy range, gives place to a less grand but perhaps more picturesque and romantic country, consisting of angular hills, divided by broader and cultivated valleys, with hamlets perched on projecting spurs or hidden in nooks upon the hill-side, while the ruined castles at their summits recall the former greatness of some Ghakkar or Sikh chieftain. Still farther south, the trees yield to brushwood, the hills grow tame and uniform; and at length, near the borders of Jehlam (Jhelum) District, only a narrow line of upland separates the valley of the Jehlam river from the great alluvial plain of the Punjab. See also *ante*, MURREE TAHSIL, which necessarily covers part of the same ground as the present article.

Mursán.—Town in Alígarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 59′ E., on the Muttra (Mathurá) road, 7 miles west of Háthras (Hattras), and 24 south-west of Alígarh town. Population (1881) 4708. Residence of a family of Ját Rájás, whose present representative is Rájá Ghansyám Singh, grandson of the late Rájá Tíkam Singh, C.S.I. Fort dismantled in 1817. Agricultural and rather neglected town. Two schools, police station, post-office.

Murshidábád (*Maksudábád* or *Muxadábád*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 43′ 15″ and 24° 52′ N. lat., and between 87° 43′ and 88° 47′ E. long. It forms the north-western corner of the Presidency Division, and is bordered along its entire frontier from north to south-east by the main stream of the Ganges, locally known as the Padma, separating it from Maldah and Rájsháhí District; on the south by Bírbhúm; and on the west by the Santál Parganás. The area was returned in 1881 at 2144 square miles; and the population at 1,226,790 persons. The administrative headquarters are at BARHAMPUR, but MURSHIDABAD CITY is the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspect—The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Bhagirathi, the ancient channel of the Ganges which flows due north and south The two tracts form a striking contrast to each other in their geology and agriculture The country west of the Bhágirathí, known as the Ráth, forms a continuation of the hard clay and nodular limestone, which extends through the neighbouring District of Bírbhum from the mountains of Chutiá Nagpur The general level is high and slightly undulating, but interspersed with *bils* or broad marshes and seamed by hill torrents, at many points the formation terminates in clay cliffs overhanging the Bhágírathi The soil of the Rarh tract is greyish or reddish, mixed with lime and oxide of iron, and beds of *kankar* or nodular limestone are scattered here and there The rivers are liable to sudden freshets, but they never lay the entire country under water for any long space of time The fields, therefore, do not possess the fertility of a deltaic tract They rarely produce more than one crop in the year, the *áman* or winter rice.

The Bagri, or eastern division of Murshidábad differs in no respect from the ordinary alluvial plains of Eastern Bengal. It lies enclosed within the Ganges, Bhágirathi, and Jalangi rivers and is also intersected by minor offshoots of the Ganges There are a few permanent swamps, but the whole country is low lying and liable to annual inundations, which sometimes, as in the present year (1885), are so severe as to cause widespread suffering, but usually do no more than deposit a top-dressing of inexhaustible fertility In variety of crops, this portion of the District is not surpassed by any part of Bengal The *aus* or early rice crop forms the great staple of agriculture A second or cold weather crop is also yielded by many of the fields

In the north west of the District there are a few small detached hillocks, which are said to be of basaltic formation The river system is constituted by the Ganges, its offshoots and tributaries The Ganges or Padma forms the eastern boundary of the District along its entire length, but nowhere enters it Its banks are extremely subject to alluvion and diluvion It is navigable throughout the year by boats of four tons burthen, and is nowhere fordable The only marts of importance on the Murshidabad side of the Ganges are Bhagwangola or Alátali and Dhulián The offshoots of the Ganges on this bank comprise the Bhágirathí, Bhairab, Sidlmári, and Jalangi The Bhagirathi, which branches off from the parent stream near the police station of Sutí, is far the most important river in Murshidabád Though now only navigable during half the year, it carries a large trade, and flows past all the ancient and modern sites of interest in the District Its channel undoubtedly represents the original bed of the Ganges, and also the farthest south western limit of the Gangetic delta The Bhágírathi retains the sanctity which the Great River here loses, and

Murree Hills.—Range in Ráwal Pindi District, Punjab, taking their name from the sanitarium which crowns one of their principal ridges; situated between 33° 53′ 30″ and 33° 54′ 30″ N. lat., and between 73° 25′ 15″ and 73° 26′ 30″ E. long. They form a series of lateral spurs of the Himálayan system, running down from the main Kashmír (Cashmere) and Hazárá chain at right angles towards the plains, with a general direction from north-east to south-west. The loftiest peaks, behind the sanitarium of Murree, attain a height of 10,000 feet. Thence they stretch down to the Murree ridge itself, whose highest portion, the Kashmir Point, has an elevation of 7517 feet above sea-level. The houses of European residents cover the space of 3½ miles to Pindi Point, 7266 feet in height. Farther south, the hills change in aspect. The rich and varied scenery of Murree, with its pine-clad mountains, deep glens, and distant glimpses of the snowy range, gives place to a less grand but perhaps more picturesque and romantic country, consisting of angular hills, divided by broader and cultivated valleys, with hamlets perched on projecting spurs or hidden in nooks upon the hill-side, while the ruined castles at their summits recall the former greatness of some Ghakkar or Sikh chieftain. Still farther south, the trees yield to brushwood, the hills grow tame and uniform; and at length, near the borders of Jehlam (Jhelum) District, only a narrow line of upland separates the valley of the Jehlam river from the great alluvial plain of the Punjab. See also *ante*, MURREE TAHSIL, which necessarily covers part of the same ground as the present article.

Mursán.—Town in Aligarh District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 27° 34′ 40″ N., and long. 77° 59′ E., on the Muttra (Mathurá) road, 7 miles west of Háthras (Hattras), and 24 south-west of Aligarh town. Population (1881) 4708. Residence of a family of Ját Rájás, whose present representative is Rájá Ghansyám Singh, grandson of the late Rajá Tikam Singh, C.S.I. Fort, dismantled in 1817. Agricultural and rather neglected town. Two schools, police station, post-office.

Murshidábád (*Maksudábád* or *Muxadábád*).—British District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 43′ 15″ and 24° 52′ N. lat., and between 87° 43′ and 88° 47′ E. long. It forms the north-western corner of the Presidency Division, and is bordered along its entire frontier from north to south-east by the main stream of the Ganges, locally known as the Padma, separating it from Maldah and Rájsháhi District; on the south by Birbhúm; and on the west by the Santál Parganás. The area was returned in 1881 at 2144 square miles; and the population at 1,226,790 persons. The administrative headquarters are at BARHAMPUR, but MURSHIDABAD CITY is the most populous place in the District.

Physical Aspect.—The District is divided into two nearly equal portions by the river Bhágirathi the ancient channel of the Ganges which flows due north and south The two tracts form a striking contrast to each other in their geology and agriculture The country west of the Bhágirathi, known as the Rárh forms a continuation of the hard clay and nodular limestone, which extends through the neighbouring District of Birbhum from the mountains of Chutiá Nágpur The general level is high and slightly undulating but interspersed with *bils* or broad marshes and seamed by hill torrents at many points the formation terminates in clay cliffs overhanging the Bhágirathi The soil of the Rarh tract is greyish or reddish mixed with lime and oxide of iron, and beds of *kankar* or nodular limestone are scattered here and there The rivers are liable to sudden freshets, but they never lay the entire country under water for any long space of time The fields therefore, do not possess the fertility of a deltaic tract They rarely produce more than one crop in the year, the *áman* or winter rice.

The Bagri, or eastern division of Murshidábád differs in no respect from the ordinary alluvial plains of Eastern Bengal. It lies enclosed within the Ganges, Bhágirathi, and Jalangi rivers and is also intersected by minor offshoots of the Ganges. There are a few permanent swamps, but the whole country is low lying and liable to annual inundations, which sometimes, as in the present year (1885) are so severe as to cause widespread suffering but usually do no more than deposit a top-dressing of inexhaustible fertility In variety of crops, this portion of the District is not surpassed by any part of Bengal. The *aus* or early rice crop forms the great staple of agriculture. A second or cold weather crop is also yielded by many of the fields

In the north-west of the District there are a few small detached hillocks, which are said to be of basaltic formation. The river system is constituted by the Ganges, its offshoots and tributaries. The Ganges or Padma forms the eastern boundary of the District along its entire length, but nowhere enters it. Its banks are extremely subject to alluvion and diluvion. It is navigable throughout the year by boats of four tons burthen, and is nowhere fordable. The only marts of importance on the Murshidábád side of the Ganges are Bhagwangolá or Alatali and Dhulian. The offshoots of the Ganges on this bank comprise the Bhágirathi, Bhairab, Sialmari, and Jalangi. The Bhágirathi, which branches off from the parent stream near the police station of Suti, is far the most important river in Murshidábád. Though now only navigable during half the year, it carries a large trade, and flows past all the ancient and modern sites of interest in the District. Its channel undoubtedly represents the original bed of the Ganges, and also the farthest south-western limit of the Gangetic delta. The Bhágirathi retains the sanctity which the Great River here loses, and

those days, but it must have been very great. The circumference of the extensive suburbs has been put as high as 30 miles; but the largest dimensions of the city proper in 1759 are said to have been 5 miles along the Bhágírathí in length, and 2½ miles in breadth on each bank of the river. In the beginning of the present century, by which time the decay of the city had already set in, we have several estimates of the population; but we neither know the area which the city was then supposed to cover, nor the modes of enumeration adopted. In 1815, the number of houses was estimated at 30,000, and the total population at 165,000 souls. In 1829, the Magistrate, Mr. Hawthorn, returned the city population at 146,176. In 1837, Mr. Adam found the inhabitants of Murshidábád city to amount to 124,804 persons, which shows a decrease of nearly 15 per cent. in eight years.

At the first regular Census in 1872, the population of Murshidábád city had dwindled down to 46,182; and at the last enumeration in 1881, to 39,231. The old city, however, comprised a much larger area than is included in the municipal boundaries of to-day. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 22,719; Muhammadans, 15,818; and 'others,' 694. The city of Murshidábád has been formed into a municipality under Act vi. of 1868. Gross municipal income in 1876-77, £2777; in 1883-84, £3335; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 4⅜d. per head. The official English name for the municipality is Lálbágh, the name also of the Sub-division of which it is the centre. The municipal boundaries, as fixed in a notification of Government dated 17th March 1869, include 17 villages on the right or west bank of the Bhágírathí, and 160 villages on the left bank of the river.

The History of Murshidábád city is the history of Bengal during the 18th century. In 1704, the great Nawáb, Murshid Kulí Khán, fixed the seat of Government at the city which he called by his own name. Murshidábád has up to the present day continued to be the residence of the Nawáb of Bengal; but it has lost all historical importance since 1790, in which year Lord Cornwallis finally transferred the supreme criminal jurisdiction to Calcutta. The old name of the place was Maksúdábád or Mukhsoosabad, and it is stated by Tieffenthaler to have been originally founded by the Emperor Akbar. In 1696, the Afgháns from Orissa, in the course of their rebellion, advanced as far as Maksúdábád, defeated 5000 of the imperial troops, and plundered the town. The neighbouring town of Kásimbázár is said to have been saved from a similar fate by the intercession of its merchants. The place was called Murshidábád by its second founder; but the old name yet lingers, and is said to be still in constant use among the Muhammadans. It is regularly spelt Muxudavad in the early English Records, as late as the year 1760. Tradition relates that Murshid Kulí Khán moved his

Government to this place through fear of Prince Azim us Shan who had attempted to assassinate him at Dacca It seems more probable that he was induced to take this step by political considerations Dacca had lost its importance, for the Maghs and the Portuguese were no longer dangerous, and the banks of the Bhágirathí afforded a more central position for the management of the three Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The new city also was situated on the line of trade, along which the treasures of India were now beginning to find their way to the European settlements on the Huglí, and it commanded the town of Kasimbázár, where all the foreigners had important factories Moreover, the situation in those days was regarded as very healthy The further history of the city is involved in the sketch of the general history of MURSHIDABAD DISTRICT

The City and its Buildings.—Murshidábád exhibits at the present day but few traces of its former grandeur The chief object of attraction is the palace of the Nawab, on the banks of the river, and nearly in the centre of the city It is a large and imposing pile of buildings in the Italian style, and its proportions are by some preferred to those of the Government House at Calcutta It took ten years in building and was completed in 1837, at a cost of £167,000 The architect was General Macleod, of the Bengal Engineers, but all the other persons engaged on the work were natives The edifice itself is called by the natives the Ainá Mahál, and, together with other buildings enclosed within the same wall, it is known as the Nizamat *kilá* or fort The palace is 425 feet long, 200 wide, and 80 high It has a splendid marble floor, and contains a banqueting hall 290 feet long, with sliding doors encased in mirrors 'In the centre of the building is a dome, from which hangs a vast and most superb chandelier of 150 branches, presented to the Nawab by the Queen Beneath stands a beautiful ivory throne, with painted and gilded flowers a specimen of the perfection of that ivory work for which Murshidábad is famous Hung on the walls are portraits of the present Nawáb, his ancestors, and his sons —(*Travels of a Hindu*, vol 1 pp 79, 80) The *zanana*, or private apartments, are situated to the right of the main entrance, and in the rear of the palace Within the same enclosure is the Imambára or 'house of prayer,' which is built directly in front of the northern principal door Outside the *kila*, and a short distance on the left along the road leading to Barhampur, is a magnificent range of coach houses and stabling for horses and elephants The Nizámat College, which has been built exclusively for the education of the relatives of the Nawab, at a cost of £7800, is situated in the opposite direction, a little way up the river

The present Imambára dates only from A.H 1264 (A D 1847), as is denoted by an inscription composed of the letters of the words, 'The

Grove of Karbala.' It is itself a fine structure, being considerably larger than the Imámbára at Húglí; but it occupies the place of the far more celebrated building erected by Siráj-ud-daulá, which is thus described in a native chronicle (*Tarikh-i-Mansuri*, by Sayyid Alí; MS. translated by Professor Blochmann, pp. 97–102):—'It was built with care and reverence, Muhammadan workmen only being employed and Hindus excluded. The Nawáb laid the first stone with his own hand, and put lime over it, after which the workmen commenced. In the midst of the Imámbára, a piece of ground called *madiná* was dug out to the depth of a man's stature, and filled with earth taken from the holy place at Karbala. On all four sides were rooms forming a sort of cloister. On the east were vestibules facing towards the west, with a pulpit and a place set aside for a sort of chapter-house, where the elegies on Husáin were read. In the west of the building there were similar vestibules facing toward the east, in which were nearly a hundred flags, and the sacred coffins made of silver, gold, glass, and wood. During the *Muharram*, the Kurán was here chanted day and night, and at fixed times during the other months of the year. The cloisters in the north and east of the building were constructed on a similar plan; but these contained only the out-offices, etc., where hundreds of workmen kept themselves in readiness during the *Muharram* to illuminate the place. The verandahs of the second storey contained screens of mica, behind which the lamps hung. On the screens were pictures of men, animals, and flowers, which had a striking effect when their transparent panes were illuminated from within. All kinds of chandeliers, in large numbers, were placed in the vestibules, and also Indian lamps. In the north and south vestibules were two representations of the Burág,—the horse on which the prophet ascended to heaven, with a human face and a peacock's tail. The length of the tails reached to the roof of the house. Well-polished shields and china or silver plates were fitted into the tails, to represent the eyes of a peacock's feathers. Swords, sabres, and daggers were arranged in different patterns around these shields, and hundreds of wax candles made the whole a dazzling and splendid object. All these costly treasures, lavished upon the temple by Siráj-ud-daulá with so much pride, were turned into ready money by Mír Kásim. This was not, however, to relieve his own necessities,—a motive which would have seemed sacrilege to one so religious as Mír Kásim,—but to assist the poor of the city, and to despatch a number of indigent Muhammadans on a pilgrimage to Mecca.' This building was accidentally burnt to the ground during a display of fireworks about forty years ago.

Whilst the present Imámbára was building, which is said to have cost £60,000, the workmen received their food in addition to their

wages, and when it was finished a present of a double shawl and a handkerchief. At the season of the *Muharram*, a daily distribution of food attracts large crowds, who are again drawn together in the evening by fireworks and illuminations The Nawáb attends one day's celebration, and takes his seat on a black carpet, over which a white embroidered coverlet is spread, and a black rug takes the place of the usual bolster After the recitation of the customary elegies, sherbet and spices are handed round. Other curious practices, peculiar to the sect of the Shias among the Muhammadans, accompany this festival On the seventh day of the *Muharram*, the Imambára is turned into a harem, and all the Begams attend They place chains on the Nawáb, according to custom, and a chain round his neck Hundreds of women, high and low, receive presents from the Begams, who are said to distribute thousands of rupees

The imperial music forms the most striking emblem of royal dignity still maintained at Murshidábad It may still be heard in the early morning sounding from the great fortified gateway which leads to the palace. This peculiar strain of instrumental music, which was allowed by the Delhi Emperors to all *subahdárs* (deputy governors) as a mark of delegated sovereignty, is frequently alluded to by the native chroniclers as the public accompaniment of each important event in the history of the Nawábs

The Raft Festival is still celebrated at Murshidabad in honour of Khwaja Khizr, the name given by the Muhammadans to the prophet Elias With this saint is connected the celebrated custom of launching tiny light ships on the river, which may be seen to great advantage on the Bhagirathi On certain nights in the rainy season, thousands of little rafts, each with its lamp burning, are floated down the stream Their construction is very simple A piece of plantain or bamboo bears a sweetmeat or two and the lamp This fete is rendered more picturesque by the unusual presence of the women, who are allowed out of doors for the occasion. The Nawab participates in the show with much magnificence on the last Thursday of the month of Bhadra (September), when the European residents are invited A raft of 100 cubits square is constructed of plantain trees and bamboos, and covered with earth On this is erected a small fortress bearing on its walls all manner of fireworks At a given signal the raft is launched and floated to the farther side of the river, when the fireworks are let off, their reflection on the water producing a most beautiful effect.

Apart from the Nizamat *kilá* and the buildings connected therewith, there is but one other structure worth notice now standing in the city proper This is the mosque erected by Mani Begam, in the vicinity of the Mubárak Manzil, formerly called the Kandil Bágh The

peculiarity of this mosque was its liberality of worship. On one side prayers were conducted according to the Hanafí rite of the Sunní sect, while on the other side were being observed the religious ceremonies of the Shiás, the Court sect.

The General Aspect of the City is thus described by the Revenue Surveyor (1860):—'Numerous brick buildings stand all along the banks of the river, north and south of the palace, which belong to, and are chiefly occupied by, the relatives and adherents of the Nawáb. Many others, some with pretty gardens, are scattered about in the tangled maze of jungle, hovels, holes, and tanks which lie to the eastward. Standing on the top of the palace dome, the loftiest place in the District, and looking over the city and its suburbs, little meets the eye but a dense forest of bamboos and trees of all kinds. Hardly a clear spot is to be seen. It is only when one turns to the west that the river and the high land in the north-west of the District present open tracts. A stranger, as he stood and gazed, would never imagine that below was a dense mass of human beings of all classes, crowded together in every description of house and hut. There are no defined limits to Murshidábád as a city, nor is any part known especially by this name. It is given indiscriminately to a collection of temples, mosques, handsome brick houses, gardens, walled enclosures, hovels, huts, and tangled jungle, containing the ruins of edifices that have sprung up and decayed around the many palaces of the former and present Nawábs of Murshidábád.'

Motijhil, or the Pearl Lake (a name also applied to a lake in Kashmír and another in Lahore), is about 2 miles south of Murshidábád. Dr. B. Hamilton states that it has been one of the former windings of the river; but others are of opinion that it was formed by the excavations made to procure bricks for building the houses, which were at one time surrounded by the lake in the form of a horse-shoe. It continues to be a beautiful spot, but hardly a relic remains of its ancient magnificence. It seems to have been first chosen as a residence by Nuázish Muhammad, the nephew of Alí Vardí Khán. It is more celebrated, however, for the palace built by Siráj-ud-daulá at an enormous expense. The materials were partly brought from the ruins of Gaur; and a few arches are still left, constructed of the black marble (or rather hornblende) which once covered the tombs of the old Pathán kings of Bengal. The following story is told of its completion, to explain the name of Mansúrganj, by which it is commonly known:—'As the building was nearly finished, Siráj-ud-daulá invited Alí Vardí to see it. When he came, Siráj-ud-daulá locked him up in a room, and refused to release him unless the *zamíndárs* there paid a fine for their land. This request the Nawáb was compelled to grant, and also to allow to his petulant grandson the privilege of erecting a granary.

granary the people called Mansúrganj, or the Granary of the ...ious, i e Siráj ud daulá, who outwitted his grandfather The aba ab...ed on this occasion is said to have amounted to Rs 501,597' ...was from Motijhil that Siráj ud daulá, in 1757, marched out ...he battle of Plassey, it was in the palace here that Colonel ...placed Mir Jafar on the *masnad* and it was again at Motijhil ...Lord Clive, as *diwán* of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, held the ...English *Punya*, in 1766 Mir Jafar fixed his residence on the ...her side of the river and Motíjhil—or Muradbágh, as the ...ce was sometimes called from the name of a second palace in ...neighbourhood—now became the home of the English Political ...sident at the court of Murshidábád One of the first to fill this ...fice was Warren Hastings Subsequently during the years 1771–73 ...Ir John Shore (afterwards Lord Teignmouth) lived at Motijhil, where ...e amused himself by improving the grounds and studying the Oriental ...anguages He described his life there in the following words — Here I enjoy cooing doves, whistling blackbirds and purling streams I am quite solitary, and, except once a week see no one of Christian com plexion' In 1785–86 the head quarters of the English were removed from Motijhil to Máidapur, prior to their final transfer to Barhampur

The *Punya* or annual settlement of the revenues of Bengal was annually held at Motijhil, until it was abolished in 1772, when the Khálsá or Treasury was removed to Calcutta. It was a ceremony of state, at which all the great *zamindars* attended in person and paid a sort of homage to the Nawab *Khilats* or presents were distri buted, which were regarded as a confirmation of their appointment, and the rent roll of the Provinces was then fixed for the year A form like the *Punyá* is still kept up at the *kachari* of every *zamindár*, but the Government ceremony has never been re established. Clive attached great importance to this institution, and raised a special revenue collection in order to defray the expenses, but in 1769 the Court of Directors prohibited the giving of presents In 1767 the *Punya* was held at Motíjhil with peculiar pomp The Nawáb was seated on the *masnad*, with Mr Verelst, the Governor, on his right hand The latter in the strongest manner urged the ministers and landholders to give all possible encouragement to the clearing and cultivating of lands for the mulberry On this occasion, *khilats* were distributed to the amount of Rs 216 870 Some of the items were—for the Governor and his Council, Rs 46,750, for the Nizámat, Rs 38,800, for the people of the Treasury, Rs 22,634, for the Zamindar of Nadiyá, Rs 7352, for the Raja of Birbhum, Rs 1200, for the Rájá of Bishnu pur, Rs 734

Khush Bágh, the Garden of Happiness, the old cemetery of the Nawabs, lies on the right bank of the Bhágirathi, opposite Motijhil.

The following description is based upon notes by Captain Layard, quoted in the Report of the Revenue Surveyor:—The cemetery consists of three walled enclosures. The outer of these is entered by a gateway from the east side, in front of which are the ruins of an old *ghát*, which formerly led down to the Bhágírathí, when that river ran under the walls. The channel is now nearly half a mile distant. The wall facing the river is loopholed for musketry, and flanked by octagonal bastions. The grounds inside are all laid out as gardens, with hedges bordering the walks; and the flowers grown in the beds serve to adorn the tombs. Many fine trees also afford a delightful shade to the explorer. Traces of fresco paint, almost obliterated by damp and neglect, may still be seen on the walls. In the outer enclosure there are eighteen tombs, only two of which have any inscription. These two have the same verse from the Kurán, the one in Persian, the other in Arabic. The middle of the three enclosures is the principal cemetery, and contains the remains of the 'good Nawáb,' Alí Vardí Khán, and of his grandson Siráj-ud-daulá. Besides the mausoleum, there are a mosque and two other buildings set apart for the female descendants of the dead, who still retain charge of the cemetery. Spread on the tombs are dark-coloured cloths or palls, spangled with gold and silver flowers; fresh flowers are strewed daily on and around them, and lights are kept continually burning. This cemetery was first endowed by Alí Vardi Khán, who allotted Rs. 305 monthly, from the collections of the villages of Bandárdeh and Nawábganj, to defray the expenses of keeping the place in order. After the murder of Siráj-ud-daulá, his widow, the Begam Lutf-ul-nissa, who had accompanied her husband in his flight to Rájmahál, and had been afterwards banished to Dacca with other ladies of the court, was subsequently recalled and placed in charge of the cemetery of Khush Bágh. Here she remained till her death, receiving, in addition to the Rs. 305 already mentioned, a personal allowance of Rs. 1000 per mensem. She now lies buried in the mausoleum by the side of her husband, but the charge is still held by her descendants, who draw pensions from the Government treasury at Barhampur. Forster mentions in 1781, that *mullás* were employed here to offer prayers for the dead, and the widow of Siráj-ud-daulá used often to come to the tomb and perform certain ceremonies of mourning. The entire cost of the establishment required for maintaining the burial-ground is now defrayed by the English Government. The third and innermost enclosure contains only a tank, the former dwelling-place of the attendants, a *muzaffar-khána* or travellers' home, and a well. This latter is no longer used, and has been walled up; for it is said that a *fakír* accidentally fell into it and was drowned, which caused its waters to be polluted and accursed.

To the north-east of Motíjhíl, and immediately outside the city of

Murshidabád, is the Kuttara, containing the tomb of Murshid Kulí Khan, erected for him by forced Hindu labour. It is said to have been constructed after the model of the great mosque at Mecca, and has two splendid minarets 70 feet high The Nawáb is buried at the foot of the stair, so as to be trampled on by every one who passes up The Kuttara is described by Hodges, a traveller of 1780, as 'a grand seminary of Musalmán learning, 70 feet square, adorned by a mosque which rises high above all the surrounding building' In this neighbourhood was the Topkhana, the arsenal of the Nawabs, which formed the eastern gateway of the city A cannon had been placed between two young trees, which have now grown up, and their branches have combined to lift the gun high above the ground BERHAMPUR, the civil head quarters of Murshidabád, and formerly a military cantonment, is dealt with in a separate article

Trade—Murshidábád city, with its suburb of AZIMGANJ, on the opposite bank of the Bhágirathi, is the chief centre of trade and manufacture in the District Though the great banking house of Jagat Seth has long ago fallen into decay, the Jain merchants of Murshidábád still rank as the wealthiest of their class in Bengal. Their dealings in gold and silver bullion are especially large, and some of their number almost monopolize the local traffic on the Brahmaputra, as far up as the north east frontier of Assam The principal industries of Murshidabád are those fostered by the luxury of the native court Carving in ivory, conducted with much skill and finish, is an old speciality of the city The carvers can turn out any article to order, from the smallest European toy to the state throne of the Nawab Other manufactures are the embroidery of fancy articles with gold and silver lace, the weaving of silk goods, the making of musical instruments, and hookah pipes In the year 1876-77, the total value of the registered river trade of Murshidabád city was returned at £154,692 Among the exports, valued altogether at £129,752, the chief items were raw silk (£45,000), rice (£37,000), gram and pulse (£10,000), and wheat (£7000) The imports were valued at only £24,940, including sugar and salt (each £5000), and piece goods (£3000) Owing to an alteration in the system of registration, no trade statistics are available for Murshidábad city for a later year than 1876-77

Murtazápur —*Taluk* of Amráoti District, Berár Area, 610 square miles, contains 1 town and 256 villages Population (1867) 104,658, (1881) 110,573, namely, 57,342 males and 53,231 females, or 181 26 persons per square mile Number of houses, 19,630 Hindus numbered 99,264, Muhammadans, 9332, Jains, 1929, Pársís, 23, Sikhs, 16, Christians, 8, and Buddhist, 1 Area occupied by cultivators, 343,847 acres Total agricultural population, 76,953 The *taluk* contains 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, police circles (*thánás*),

3; regular police, 81 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 274. Total revenue, £36,869, of which £30,426 is derived from land.

Murtazápur.—Town in Amráoti District, Berár, and a station on the Nagpur line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway; situated in lat. 20° 44′ N., and long. 77° 25′ E., 30 miles west-south-west of Amráoti town. Population (1881) 4887. Large quantities of cotton are sent here from Karinja and other places for carriage to Bombay. Murtazápur is the head-quarters of Murtazápur *tahsil*. Travellers' bungalow.

Murwárá.—Northern *tahsil* or Sub-division of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) District, Central Provinces. Area, 1176 square miles; number of towns and villages, 513; houses, 40,749. Total population (1881) 157,716, namely, males 79,473, and females 78,243. Average density of population, 134 persons per square mile. Of the total area of the *tahsil*, 157 square miles pay neither revenue nor tribute, leaving the assessed area at 1019 square miles. Of these, 520 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 246 square miles as cultivable but not under tillage, and 253 square miles as uncultivable waste. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) was returned in 1881 at 67,264, or 42·65 per cent. of the whole population of the *tahsil*. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult cultivator, 7 acres. Total Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £9427, or an average of 6¾d. per cultivated acre. Total rental, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £22,170, or an average of 1s. 3⅜d. per cultivated acre. In 1883, Murwárá *tahsil* contained 1 criminal and 2 civil courts, 3 police circles (*thánás*), and 11 outpost stations (*chaukis*), a regular police force numbering 111 men, and a village watch of 374 (*chaukidárs*).

Murwárá.—Town and municipality in Jabalpur District, Central Provinces, and head-quarters of Murwárá *tahsil*; situated in lat. 23° 51′ N., and long. 80° 26′ E., 57 miles north-east of Jabalpur city, on the road to Mírzápur. Murwárá, which in 1872 was a mere agricultural village with 2885 inhabitants, had by 1881 increased to an important commercial town, with a population numbering 8612, and composed of —Hindus, 7078; Muhammadans, 1155; Jains, 114; Kabírpanthís, 159; Satnámis, 26; Christians, 6; Pársís, 2; and aboriginal tribes, 72. Municipal revenue in 1882–83, £590, of which £535 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 3⅜d. per head. Murwárá has now become an important mercantile centre, with a large trade in grain, oil-seeds, lac, hides, leather, *ghí*, iron, lime, piece-goods, salt, sugar, tobacco, and spices. The town contains a Government school; and the Kathná river is here crossed by two fine bridges, one on the northern road, and the other on the Jabalpur branch of the East Indian Railway.

Musafirkhána.—*Tahsil* or Sub-division of Sultanpur District, Oudh.—*See* MUZAFFARKHANA.

Musiri.—*Taluk* or Sub-division in Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency. Area, 748 square miles, containing 1 town and 222 villages. Population (1871) 255,132; (1881) 258,068, namely, 122,262 males and 135,806 females, occupying 46,322 houses. Hindus numbered 250,082; Muhammadans 3585; Christians, 4397; and 'others,' 4. Musiri Sub-division lies north of the Káveri river. The villages along the bank of the Káveri, being well irrigated by channels from that river, are fertile. The centre and northern portions of the Sub-division are, as a rule, unirrigated. In addition to the Káveri, the Ayyar and the Karaipottánar are the only rivers of any importance. The country is generally flat, the only range of hills being the PACHAMALAIS. The soil is black in the hollows, and red on the higher levels and in the neighbourhood of the hills. The rates of assessment on irrigated lands range from 2s. to 14s.; the rates for unirrigated lands from 9d. to 7s. In 1883, the Sub-division contained 3 criminal courts; 10 police stations (*thanás*); 79 regular police. Land revenue, £35,372.

Musiri.—Town in Musiri Sub-division, Trichinopoli District, Madras Presidency; head-quarters of an Assistant Collector and a *tahsíldár*. Situated on the Cauvery river, 25 miles from Trichinopoli town, and almost exactly opposite to Kulitilai station on the Erode Branch of the South Indian Railway. A considerable amount of traffic from the Sub-division is carried on at this station. Lat. 10° 57′ N., and long. 78° 28′ 56″ E. Population (1881) 4088. Number of houses, 953. Dispensary and post-office.

Muskára.—North-Western *tahsil* of Hamírpur District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the south bank of the river Betwa. Area, 410 square miles, of which 224½ are cultivated. Population (1881) 79,817. Land revenue, £15,330; total Government revenue, £17,185; rental paid by cultivators, £23,346; average incidence of Government revenue, 1s. 2d. per acre. This *tahsil* was formerly known as Jalálpur. In 1885 it contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; number of police circles (*thanás*), 5; regular police, 48 men; village watch or rural police, 189.

Mussooree (*Masuri*).—Town and sanitarium in Debrá Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 27′ 30″ N., long. 78° 6′ 30″ E. Stands on the crest of a Himalayan peak, among beautiful and varied mountain scenery. Mussooree forms practically one station with LANDAUR, where there is a convalescent depot for European troops, established in 1827. Elevation above sea-level, 7433 feet. Large numbers of visitors during the summer months. Protestant and Roman Catholic churches, three or four private schools, public library, masonic

lodge, club, volunteer corps, brewery, 3 banks, 3 hotels, numerous boarding-houses. The Botanical Gardens, established by Government, have been purchased by the municipality. A summer home for soldiers' children was established in Mussooree in 1876, and provides accommodation for about 100 children in the hot weather months. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway have also a school at Mussooree for the children of their European employés. Charitable dispensary.

Mussooree is the summer head-quarters of the Trigonometrical branch of the Survey of India. The population fluctuates greatly, according to the season of the year. The Census in February 1881 was taken in the depth of winter, and returned a total population of permanent residents of Mussooree numbering 3106, namely, Hindus, 2019; Muhammadans, 644; Christians, 440; Jain, 1; and 'others,' 2. In September (1880), during the height of the season, a special Census was taken which returned the population of Masúri at 7652, and of the adjacent cantonment of Landaur at 4428; total, 12,080, namely, Hindus, 6406; Muhammadans, 3082; Europeans, 2355; Eurasians, 182; Native Christians, 43; and 'others,' 12. Municipal income of Mussooree (1883-84), £3361, of which £3303 was derived from taxation. For further details, *see* LANDAUR.

Mustafábád.—North-western *tahsíl* of Máinpuri District, North-Western Provinces, and conterminous with Mustafábád *parganá*; lying in the centre of the Doáb upland, and watered by two branches of the Ganges Canal. Area, 321 square miles, of which 181 are cultivated. Population (1872) 155,476; (1881) 162,201, namely, males 88,884, and females 73,317; increase of population since 1872, 6725, or 4·3 per cent. in nine years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 150,036; Muhammadans, 9380; Jains, 2780; and 'others,' 5. Of the 270 towns and villages comprising the *tahsíl*, 164 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £29,150; total Government revenue, £32,648; rental paid by cultivators, £45,510. In 1883, Mustafábád *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, 2 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police of 42 men, and a village watch or rural police of 370 *chaukidárs*.

Mustafábád.—Town in Ambála (Umballa) District, Punjab. Lat. 30° 12′ N., long. 77° 13′ E. Lies on road from Saháranpur to Ludhiáná. Small citadel, the residence of a Sikh Rájá.

Mustafábád.—Town in Faizábád (Fyzábád) District, Oudh; situated 19 miles from Faizábád town. Population (1881) 2377, namely, Hindus, 1327, and Muhammadans, 1050. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway passes through the village. Two Hindu temples and one mosque.

Mustafábád.—Town in Salon *tahsíl*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh; situated 3 miles north of the Ganges, and 20 from Rái Bareli town, on

ad from Salon to Manikpur. Formerly a flourishing place, with handsome buildings and tombs. Rájá Darshan Singh plundered own in the later years of native rule, and since then it has declined ulation (1881) 2528, namely, 1566 Hindus and 962 Musalmáns. age school.

Muttra (*Mathurá*).—British District in the Lieutenant Governor-p of the North Western Provinces, lying between 27° 14′ 30″ and ° 58′ N lat, and between 77° 19′ 30″ and 78° 33′ E long Area, 452 7 square miles Population (1881) 671,690 persons Muttra orms the north western District of the Agra Division It is bounded n the north by the Punjab District of Gurgaon and the North-Western Provinces District of Aligarh, on the east by Aligarh and Etah Districts, on the south by Agra District, and on the west by Bhartpur State and Gurgáon District The administrative head-quarters are at the city of MUTTRA, on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuná). Muttra is mentioned by Ptolemy as the 'Modoura of the gods' (Μόδουρα ἡ τῶν θεῶν), and by Arrian and Pliny as 'Methora' (Μέθορα).

Physical Aspects—The District of Muttra comprises an irregular strip of territory, lying on either side of the river Jumna (Jamuna) The general level is only broken on the south western angle, along the Bhartpur frontier, by low ranges of limestone hills, nowhere rising to more than 200 feet above the plain, the general elevation above sea level falling from 620 feet in the north north west to about 566 feet in the south south west, following the course of the Jumna. The chief natural peculiarity of the District is the want of rivers The one perennial stream, the Jumna, divides it into two not very un equal portions, the eastern tract containing about 640, and the western about 810 square miles

The eastern half of the District, comprising the Mát, Mahában, and Sadábád *tahsils*, presents the usual features of the Gangetic Doáb, con-sisting for the most part of a rich upland plain, abundantly irrigated by wells and rivers, and traversed by distributaries of the Ganges canal. Its luxuriant crops and fruitful orchards indicate the fertility of the soil; but it possesses little historical interest, and owes its present prosperity chiefly to the security of British rule. Above Bhadaura, several old beds of the Jumna have transformed themselves into lagoons. The western or trans Jumna portion, on the other hand, comprising the Kosi, Chháta, and Muttra *tahsils*, though comparatively unfavoured by nature, is rich in mythological associations and anti quarian remains The aspect of this sacred tract, where the divin brothers Krishna and Balaráma grazed their herds, is very disappoin ing to the traveller. The crops are scanty, and the larger fore trees are not found. The dust lies deep on every road and fiel

Noh Jhíl is a swampy lake about 2 miles east of the Jumna, in the northern portion of the Doáb tract It has an average length of 2½ miles, with a breadth of 1½ but swells in the rainy season over a much larger area.

There is scarcely any forest timber in the District, and nearly all the wood may be classed as fuel The area under groves is quite insignificant, occupying only 5 per cent of the District area Thatching grass is plentiful The seeds fruit and bark of many trees are used for medicinal purposes, for dyeing, or as food Sandstone fit for building purposes, is procurable at two places on the western border of the District at Barsána and Nandgaon where low rocky hills crop out above the surface of the ground This stone however is not much used, except by the canal officers for bridges and other works on the Agra canal *Kankar* or nodular limestone is abundant throughout Muttra, but that obtained from the country east of the Jumna is larger, harder, of better colour and in thicker strata than that found in the western division

The wild animals most commonly found are leopards, wolves, hyænas, wild hog and *nilgai*, principally in the western hilly tracts along the Bhartpur border

History—The central portion of Muttra District forms one of the most sacred spots in Hindu mythology The circuit of 84 *kos* around Gokul and Brindában bears the name of the Braj Mandal, and carries with it many associations of the earliest Aryan times Here Krishna and Balaráma, the divine herdsmen, fed their cattle in the forest pastures, and numerous relics of antiquity in the towns of MUTTRA, GOBARDHAN GOKUL MAHABAN, and BRINDABAN still attest the sanctity with which this holy tract was invested In addition to the short article on Gokul, which had to be written before the author visited the place, a short account of that famous river side village will be found at the end of the longer article MAHABAN During the Buddhist period, Muttra became a centre of the new faith, and is mentioned by the early Chinese pilgrims in their itineraries After the invasion of Mahmúd of Ghazni in 1017, the city fell into insignificance till the reign of Akbar

Thenceforward its history merges in that of the Jats of BHARTPUR, and only acquires a separate individuality with the rise of Suráj Mall In 1712, Badan Singh, father of that famous adventurer, proclaimed himself leader of the Jats, and took up his residence at Sahar, where he built a handsome palace In his old age he distributed his possessions among his sons, giving the south western portion of Bhartpur to his youngest, Partáb Singh, and the remainder of his dominions, including Muttra, to his eldest, Suraj Mall On Badan Singh s death, Suráj Mall moved to Bhartpur, and assumed the title of Rájá.

in numerical order are as follows:—Ját, 117,265; Chamár, 99,410; Kori, 18,209; Gadária, 15,559; Barhai, 13,835; Nái, 13,402; Bhangi, 12,543; Kumbhár, 11,016; Máli, 7542; Gújar, 7150; Ahir, 6027; Kahár, 5878; Dhobi, 5676; and Mallah, 5056. The Muhammadans are divided according to sect into—Sunnís, 57,732, and Shiás, 356. Rájputs numbering 3184; Mewatís, 1906; Jats, 174; and Gújars, 14, are found among the Muhammadan population. The Christians include—Europeans, 262; Eurasians, 19; and Natives, 57.

Town and Rural Population.—Seven towns in 1881 contained a population exceeding 5000 souls, namely—MUTTRA, 47,483; BRINDABAN, 21,467; KOSI, 11,231; MAHABAN, 6182; KURSANDA, 6018; CHHATA, 6014; and SARIR, 5199. These towns contain a total urban population numbering 103,594, or 15·4 per cent. of the District population. The 848 villages, with a total rural population of 568,096, are classified according to size as follows:—186 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 275 from two to five hundred; 234 from five hundred to a thousand; 101 from one to two thousand; 34 from two to three thousand; and 18 from three to five thousand. As regards occupation, the male population is returned under the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official class, 10,742; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 1798; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, and carriers, 7452; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 146,474; (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 57,256; and (6) indefinite and ... ive class, including labourers and male children, 137,245.

Agriculture.—Out of ... s, 1048 square miles were ... cultiv... iles as cultivable wast... iles ... s non-assessed and ... pal crop ... the ... con... the ... littl irri... ind pu... bor foo... rid... pure enou...

mass of the population are fairly well off The last settlement of nd revenue pressed lightly upon the District No very severe has occurred lately, the harvests have yielded well, and the nts are therefore in better circumstances than those of neighbour istricts The tenures of land do not readily fall under the standard of the North Western Provinces being held under imperfect ies of *zamindári* and *bhayachára* The greater number of estates split up into infinitesimal fractions among the whole village com nity, and the small farmers, who till their own scanty plots, form ery large class, while the number of non proprietary cultivators is oportionately small Most of the latter have no hereditary rights, but old as tenants at will

Of the total male adult agricultural population (143 500) of Muttra District, 30,544 are returned as landholders 1199 as estate servants, 85,649 as cultivators, and 26 108 as agricultural labourers Average area cultivated by each adult male agriculturist 5 12 acres The total agricultural population however dependent upon the soil for a livelihood numbers 347,787 or 55 8 per cent of the District population Of the total area of 1452 7 square miles 1323 square miles are assessed for Government revenue Total Government assessment, including rates and cesses £188 980 or an average of 5s 6½d per cultivated acre Total rental paid by cultivators including rates and cesses, £261,728, or an average of 7s 1½d per cultivated acre Wages rule as follows —Coolies and unskilled labourers, 2¼d to 3¾d per diem, field hands, 2¼d to 3d, bricklayers and carpenters, 6d to 2s Women obtain about one fifth less than men, and children from one third to two-thirds The prices of food-grains in January 1884 were as follows —Wheat, 17¾ *sers* per rupee, or 6s 4d per cwt, best rice, 7 *sers* per rupee, or 16s per cwt, *joar* and gram, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s 10d. per cwt, *bajra*, 22 *sers* per rupee, or 5s 1d per cwt, and barley, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s 6d per cwt

Natural Calamities —Muttra has often suffered severely from drought and famine In 1813, the *pargana* of Sahar was a centre of great distress Many persons perished of hunger, or sold their wives and children for a few rupees or a single meal In 1825–26, all the western Districts of the North Western Provinces were visited by a terrible drought, which specially afflicted Mahaban and Jalesar (now in Agra District) In 1837–38, the famine pressed severely upon the Doab portion of Muttra, and also on the south western hill tract In 1860–61, only half the usual quantity of land was irrigated, and only the irrigated area produced a harvest Many of the poorer cultivators left the District towards the close of 1860, and only one fourth returned The deaths from starvation averaged 497 a month in the first quarter, and 85 in the second quarter, of 1861, but in July and August they fell to

The total number of deaths from starvation was reported at about 2500.

The last famine occurred in 1877-78, in which Muttra and Agra suffered more and for a longer period than the other Districts of the Division, the mortality in Muttra for 1878 being higher than in any other District of the North-Western Provinces, reaching the enormous proportion of 71·56 per thousand. The rainfall from June to September 1877 was only 4·30 inches, as against 18·28 inches in the preceding year, and even that was below the average. The deficiency in the rains affected the main food crops, which are mostly raised on unirrigated lands, the irrigated tracts being chiefly reserved for the more lucrative cultivation of sugar, indigo, and cotton. Thus, in consequence of short sowings, prices rose from early in July; and in September 1877 positive distress began to be manifested. The autumn crop, on which the poorer people depend, failed absolutely, and common grains were not procurable. The local distress was aggravated by crowds of refugees from the adjoining Native States, who were attracted by the fame of the many charitable institutions existing both in the city itself and in Bhartpur. Relief works were started at different places all over the District in October; but the climax of the famine was not reached till July and August 1878, when the average daily attendance at the relief works was 20,483. The poorhouse for the relief of those unable to work was not closed till June 1879, having afforded relief to 395,824 paupers.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The District, being mainly agricultural, has little external trade, and no manufactures of importance. The East Indian Railway traverses the extreme eastern border of the Doáb *parganás*, and has a course of 7½ miles within the District, with 1 station, Mánikpur or Jalesar Road. The light railway on the metre gauge system, now connecting the East Indian line with Bhartpur, runs from Háthras road station on the main line, through Háthras, to Muttra city, a distance of 29 miles. It has 3 stations within Muttra District, at Barahna, Ráya, and Muttra. A continuation of this line has also been constructed from Muttra to Achnera in Agra District, a distance of 23 miles, with stations at Bhainsa and Parkham within Muttra District. Total length of railway communication, 40 miles. Ten metalled roads within the District have an aggregate length of 176 miles; the chief are the Agra and Delhi, Muttra and Bhartpur, and Háthras roads. The unmetalled lines comprise 115 miles of 'first-class,' and 414 miles of 'second-class' roads.

Administration.—The District of Muttra, as an administrative unit, dates only from the year 1832, when it was formed out of Agra and Sádábád. The District staff usually consists of a Collector-Magistrate, Joint Magistrate, and Assistant Magistrate — all Europeans; together

with 1 Deputy Magistrate, 6 *tahsildars*, and 8 special Magistrates—all natives Muttra is comprised in the jurisdiction of the civil and sessions judge of Agra, and the sub judge of the same city also exercises civil powers within the District. At Muttra itself is a *munsif's* or civil court of original jurisdiction

The total amount of revenue, imperial, local, and municipal, raised in the District in 1876 amounted to £234,178, the land tax contributing £138 354 In 1883–84, the total imperial revenue of Muttra District (excluding local and municipal funds) amounted to £191,735, the chief items being as follows —Land revenue, £141 438, stamps, £8226, excise, £4989, provincial rates £20 327 assessed taxes £4479, registration, £1307, and irrigation and navigation, £3784 The District is sub-divided into 6 *tahsils*, containing in 1883–84 an aggregate of 1438 estates, paying an average land revenue of £112 each

The total strength of the regular and municipal police force was 854 men, maintained at a cost of £8153, of which £5495 was paid from provincial and £2658 from other sources, being 1 policeman to every 1 7 square mile and every 787 of the population, the cost averaging £5, 12s 6d per square mile, or 2¾d per head of the population The District jail at Muttra contained in 1883 a daily average of 196 prisoners, of whom 184 were males and 12 females The District contains 15 imperial and 6 local post offices, together with 5 telegraph stations belonging to the different railway companies

Education was carried on in 1880–81 by 210 Government, municipal, and unaided missionary and indigenous schools, with an aggregate of 6486 pupils, being 1 school to every 7 square miles of area, and 9 6 pupils to every thousand of the population The *zila* or high school in Muttra city was attended by 244 pupils in 1880–81 Middle class Anglo-vernacular schools exist at Aring, Farah, Brindaban, Kosi, Chhata, Mahában, and Sádábad. The Government schools, which in 1880–81 numbered 136 with 5162 pupils, had increased to 155 with 5602 pupils in 1883–84 No statistics of private unaided schools are available for the latter year The three municipal towns of Muttra, Brindaban, and Kosi had an aggregate revenue in 1883–84 of £8571, of which £7199 was derived from octroi, average incidence of taxation, 1s 7½d per head of the population (87,714) within municipal limits

Medical Aspects—The climate of Muttra is dry and hot, owing to the proximity of the sandy deserts on the west. Great extremes of temperature occur, the cold of winter being comparatively excessive, while hot winds blow from the west with great violence during April, May, and June The average rainfall for a period of thirty years ending 1881 amounted to 25 45 inches; the maximum during this period being 37 inches in 1867, and the minimum, 11 3 inches in 1860 (the year of famine) No thermometrical returns are available On the whole, the

ll, while 1509 acres were rent free grants made by *zamindárs* The
cipal landed proprietors are the Játs, who are also the best culti
ors, and hold 35,512 acres, Brahmans, 34,869 acres, Rajputs,
352 acres, Baniyás, 17,725 acres, Kayasths, 6774 acres, and
hammadans, 4336 acres Total Government land revenue
881–82), £33,322 or including local rates and cesses, £66,870
nd, £38,002 Total rental, including rates and cesses, £66,870
1884, Muttra *tahsil* contained (including the District head quarter
ourts) 1 civil and 8 criminal courts number of police circles (*thánas*),
o, strength of regular police 279 men village watch or rural police
chaukidárs), 496

Muttra (*Mathurá*) — City municipality and administrative head quarters of Muttra District, North Western Provinces, situated in lat 27° 30′ 13″ N, and long 77° 43′ 45″ E, on the right bank of the Jumna (Jamuna), about 30 miles above Agra. Fa Hian the Chinese pilgrim, mentions it as a centre of the Buddhist faith about 400 A D, and his successor Hiuen Tsiang, about 650 A D also records that it contained 20 Buddhist monasteries and 5 Brahmanical temples

The antiquities of Muttra have been so fully described by Mr Growse, in his volume entitled *Mathurá*, that it is unnecessary to do more than refer to them here The Jamá Masjid is now restored with white plaster, and in part with encaustic tiles The view from its minarets is very fine Muttra city rises like a mud fortress from the bank of the Jumna, studded with striking white edifices—the river with its bathing *ghats* in front The 'Id gah or Katra has not been restored, but its hard red sandstone walls still stand, with the plaster modelling and graceful ornamentation still visible inside It has been identified with the site of the ancient Buddhist monastery of Upagupta, and marks one of the oldest religious spots in India It stands on a lofty but ruined platform, commanding a noble view of the surrounding country The magnificent masonry tank known as the Patara kund, with high walls and steps rising about fifty feet from the water, is still in good preservation The water lies about forty to sixty feet below the mounds of ruins which surround it A fringe of *pipal*, *nim*, and banyan trees overtops the masonry walls Three great flights of stone steps lead down on three sides to the tank, and on the fourth side there is an inclined plane, originally of red sandstone, now replaced in part by bricks, for horses to descend to drink. Muttra contains many relics of the Buddhist faith, and its whole atmosphere breathes the gentle religion of Krishna. The charity of the inhabitants and pilgrims to the animal creation has encouraged swarms of monkeys in the city, and innumerable turtles in the river off the bathing *ghats* The carved façades of the houses in fine white stone and wood, with the richly ornamented houses of the great merchants along the principal streets,

render Muttra one of the most interesting and artistic cities of modern India.

Muttra was sacked by Mahmúd of Ghazní, with terrible atrocity, in 1017–18. About 1500, Sultán Sikandar Lodi utterly destroyed all the shrines, temples, and images; and in 1636, Sháh Jahán appointed a governor expressly to 'stamp out idolatry' in Muttra. In 1669–70, Aurangzeb visited the city, and destroyed many temples and shrines, so that the existing remains date back for the most part only to the period of Ját supremacy. (*See* MUTTRA DISTRICT.) Some relics of the Buddhist buildings may still, however, be traced. (*See* MUTTRA DISTRICT.) Muttra was again plundered by 25,000 Afghán cavalry belonging to Ahmád Sháh Abdálí in 1756. The principal surviving edifices include the Satí-búrj (or 'Tower of the Faithful Widow'), built by Rájá Bhagwán Dás in 1570; the Jamá Masjid or mosque of Abd-un-Nabi Khán, built in 1662; the mosque of Aurangzeb, built in 1669 on the site of the temple of Kesva Deva; and the modern temples of Gata-srám (1800), Dwára Kádhis (1815), Bije Gobind (1867), and Rádha Krishna (1871). Muttra still forms a great centre of Hindu devotion, and large numbers of pilgrims flock annually to its festivals. The surrounding country teems with associations and legends of the divine brothers Krishna and Balaráma, who dwelt in the neighbouring plain.

Population (1872) 59,281; (1881) 57,724, including the area within municipal limits, 55,016, and the cantonments, 2708. The city proper contained a total population of 47,483 in 1881, namely, males 24,650, and females 22,833. A light line of railway connects Muttra with the East Indian main line at Háthras road station. The Cawnpur-Achnera Railway also connects the town with Cawnpur, Agra, Bhartpur, and Rájputána. Government offices, courts, charitable dispensary, high school, jail, telegraph station. Municipal revenue in 1883–84, £5705; from taxes, £4787, or 1s. 8⅞d. per head of population (55,016) within municipal limits.

Muvattapalai.—*Táluk* in Travancore State, Madras Presidency.—*See* MUATTAPALAI.

Muwánah.—North-eastern *tahsíl* of Meerut (Merath) District, North-Western Provinces, lying along the west bank of the Ganges, and including the ancient city of Hastinapur.—*See* MAWANA.

Muzaffarábád.—Town in Kashmir (Cashmere) State, Northern India. Lat. 34° 24′ N., long. 73° 22′ E. Stands at the confluence of the Jehlam with the Kishen Gangá, just beyond the Hazára border. Important as commanding the entrance of the BARAMULA PASS. Ferries over both rivers. Fort built by Aurangzeb, and subsequently replaced by a stronger one under the Afghán Governor, Ata Muhammad.

Muzaffargarh.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the

Punjab, lying between 29° 1 and 30° 46′ 45″ N lat, and between 70° 33′ and 71° 49 E. long Area, 3139 square miles Population (1881) 338,605 persons Muzaffargarh forms the westernmost District of the Multán Division It is bounded on the north by Dera Ismáil Khan and Jhang Districts, on the east and south east by the river Chenáb, which separates it from Multán District and Baháwalpur State, and on the west by the Indus, which separates it from Dera Ghazi Khan District Muzaffargarh is divided into three *tahsils*—Sananwan, which includes all the northern portion of the District, excepting a narrow strip along the right bank of the Chenáb, Alipur, which embraces the southern portion of the District, and Muzaffargarh, the centre The District stands thirteenth in order of area, and twenty eighth in order of population among the 32 Districts of the Punjab, and comprises 2 94 per cent. of the total area, and 1 80 per cent of the total population of the Lieutenant Governorship The administrative head-quarters are at the town of MUZAFFARGARH

Physical Aspects —The District of Muzaffargarh occupies the extreme southern apex of the Sind Sagar Doab the wedge shaped tract between the Indus and the confluent waters of the Five Rivers or Panjnad locally known as the Chenáb The District stretches northward from their confluence in a narrow ridge of land gradually widening for about 130 miles, until at its northern border a distance of some 55 miles intervenes between their channels Its shape is therefore that of a tolerably regular triangle, with the base resting against the cis-Indus portion of Dera Ismail Khán The northern half of the District consists of the valley of the Indus on the west, the valley of the Chenáb on the east, while the wild *thal* or central desert of the Sind Sagar Doab extends for a considerable distance down its midst This arid plateau, rising like a backbone in the centre of the wedge, has a width of 40 miles in the extreme north, and terminates abruptly on either side in a high bank, about 10 miles from the present bed of the Indus, and 3 miles from that of the Chenáb As the rivers converge, the *thal* gradually contracts, until, about 10 miles south of Muzaffargarh town, it disappears altogether Though apparently an elevated table land, it is really composed of separate sand hills, whose intermediate valleys lie at a lower level than that of the Indus, and have at times been flooded by the bursting of the western barrier ridge or bank Scattered amid this waste of sand heaps, a few good plots of land occur, which the ceaseless industry of the Jat cultivators has converted into smiling fields of grain

The border strips which fringe the *thal* towards the rivers are for the most part under cultivation, but wide reaches of barren soil, especially on the Indus side, often separate the tilled patches with a towering growth of jungle grass, glistening stretches of white saline

efflorescence, or stunted shrubs of tamarisk. South of the *thal* plateau, the space between the rivers contracts to a width of 20 miles, more or less subject to inundation from side to side. The middle tract lies sufficiently high, as a rule, to escape excessive flooding, while it remains, on the other hand, within the reach of easy irrigation. This portion of the District, accordingly, consists of a rich and productive country, thickly studded with prosperous villages. But in the extreme south, and in some other parts, the floods from the two rivers spread at times across the whole intervening tract. On abating, they leave luxuriant pasturage for cattle; and if their subsidence takes place sufficiently early, magnificent crops of wheat, peas, and gram are raised in the cultivated portion. The towns stand on high sites or are protected by embankments; but the villages scattered over the lowlands are exposed to annual inundations, during which the people abandon their grass-built huts, and take refuge on wooden platforms attached to every house, where they remain night and day till the floods subside. Numerous pools, supplied from the flooded rivers, cover the surface of the District. The Indus and the Chenáb once united their streams far to the north of their present confluence. In the time of Timúr, the junction took place at Uchh, 60 miles above the existing confluence at Mithánkot. Throughout the cold weather, large herds of camels, sheep, and goats, belonging chiefly to the Povindah merchants of Afghánistán, graze upon the sandy waste of the *thal*.

The principal rivers of Muzaffargarh are—(1) The INDUS, which forms the western boundary of the District for a distance of 110 miles. The stream, which is two miles broad in the cold weather, is swollen in the hot weather by the melting of the Himálayan snows, to such an extent as to overflow its banks far and wide. The depth of the main channel varies from about 12 feet in the cold weather to about 24 feet in the summer. The current is strong and rapid, and this, together with the tendency of the river to form islands and shoals, renders navigation by boats very difficult. The most remarkable feature of the Indus is the gradual shifting of its stream to the west. At one time, the river no doubt flowed down the centre of the *thal* desert. In the middle of the District are numerous villages, now far away from the Indus, to whose proper names are added terminals denoting that at one time they stood on or near the river bank; and the inland portion of the District is full of watercourses which were once beds of the Indus.

(2) The CHENAB forms the eastern boundary of Muzaffargarh for a length of 109 miles. This river, though locally known as the Chenáb, has received the waters of the Jehlam (Jhelum) and Rávi, before reaching this District, and is more correctly the Trináb. After it has flowed three-fifths of the distance down Muzaffargarh, it receives the united Sutlej and Beas (Biás), and becomes the Panjnad or Five

Rivers, though it continues to be called the Chenáb After its junction with the Indus, just beyond the southern borders of the District at Mithánkot in Dera Gházi Khán, the combined waters become for a short distance the Sátnad or Seven Rivers, composed of the five rivers of the Punjab, plus the Indus and Kábul rivers The Chenáb is narrower and less rapid than the Indus, with a depth of water varying from 15 feet in winter to 30 feet in summer The stream shifts very much, and navigation is difficult, but not so dangerous as on the Indus Both the Indus and Chenáb carry silt in suspension in their waters, and during the floods deposit it on the adjacent lands, which it greatly fertilizes Occasionally, however, destructive inundations occur, which do great harm

Besides the normal annual overflow of the rivers, which supply natural irrigation to about 150,000 acres, a series of Government inundation canals, taking off from side channels or branches of the Indus and Chenáb, affords irrigation to over 200,000 acres These canals were nearly all excavated by native rulers, and most of them date from the early years of the present century

Eighteen forest tracts, with a total area of 97,150 acres, are under the management of the Forest Department, but are unreserved. Although with an inappreciable rainfall, Muzaffargarh District is full of vegetation of great variety The date palm, *khajji* or *khejur* (Phœnix sylvestris), is largely cultivated, and the fruit forms a staple food of the population during part of the year The trees pay a tax to Government, which yields a considerable revenue. The timber and other trees common in the District include the following —*Tahli* or *shisham* (Dalbergia Sissoo), which grow with great luxuriance, two fine avenues of these trees lead from Muzaffargarh, one, 5 miles long, to Sher Shah ferry, and the other, 11 miles long, to Khangarh *Kikar* (Acacia arabica), *sharinh* or *siris* (Albizzia Lebbek), *jand* or *kanda* (Prosopis spicigera), the commonest tree in the District, *ukánh* (Tamarix articulata), *pilchhi* or *jhau* (Tamarix dioica), *jal* (Salvadora oleoides), *jhit* (Salvadora persica), and *karinh* or *karila* (Populus euphratica) Other trees common in Muzaffargarh are—*Pipal* (Ficus religiosa), *bor* (Ficus bengalensis), *girdnali* or *amaltas* (Cassia fistula), *lasura* (Cordia myxa), *rohira* (Tecoma undulata) *gondi* (Cordia rothii), *jamun* (Eugenia jambolana), *dhák* or *chichhra* (Butea frondosa), and *sohanjna* (Moringa pterygosperma) The garden trees include mangoes, pomegranates, apples, oranges, limes, and figs

There are no metals found in Muzaffargarh, and the mineral products are unimportant *Kankar* or nodular limestone occasionally occurs, but in such small quantities as not to be worth collecting Earth salt used to be largely manufactured under the native Governments, but this is now prohibited. The majority of the descendants of the old *nunaris*

or salt-makers have taken to agriculture, and others to charcoal-burning.

Tigers are often met with in the dense jungles on the banks of the Indus, towards the south of the District. They do considerable damage to cattle, but rarely attack man, unless in self-defence. Wolves are found throughout the District, and wild hog are extremely common, especially on the banks of the rivers. The only deer in the District are hog-deer, the Indian gazelle, and the swamp-deer. The last is nearly extinct. Jackals and foxes are common. Hares are very rare. Otters are found in the south of the District. Hedgehogs are common. Mungoose are very common. Hog and deer are occasionally taken by nets of *munj* rope supported on poles driven into the ground. The game birds include floriken, sand-grouse, black and grey partridge, quail, snipe, plover, many varieties of duck and teal, water-fowl, etc. Fish of an excellent quality abound in the rivers, and afford a means of livelihood to a large number of people.

History.—Muzaffargarh District hardly possesses any distinct annals of its own, having always formed part of the Múltán Province, whose fortunes it has invariably followed. During the Mughal period, it was included in Akbar's *sarkár* of Múltán; and when the Duráni Empire superseded that of Delhi in North-Western India, Muzaffargarh fell to the new power, with the rest of the Province. Its last Muhammadan ruler, Muzaffar Khán, the Afghán Governor of Múltán under the Duráni dynasty, gave his name to the present head-quarters town, which he enlarged and surrounded with a wall. The southern and middle portions of the District, however, were in the hands of the Nawáb of Baháwalpur, only the extreme north being held by Muzaffar Khán. During the long struggle between the Afghán Governor and the Sikhs (*see* MULTAN DISTRICT), the Muzaffargarh peasantry suffered much in the cause of their ruler; and in 1818, the army of Ranjít Singh, advancing for their final attack upon Múltán, stormed the two towns of Muzaffargarh and Khángarh. Thenceforth the northern portion of the District passed under the rule of the Sikhs, and was administered by Diwán Sáwan Mall and his son Múlráj. The southern half, however, still remained in the hands of the Baháwalpur Nawábs, who held it as independent chiefs up to the conquest of Dera Ghází Khán by Ranjít Singh. But after that date they accepted a lease of the whole District from the Sikh Mahárájá; and the Nawáb failing to remit the annual amount in 1830, Ranjít Singh sent General Ventura to take charge of his conquests, and the river Sutlej (Satlaj) was accepted as the boundary between the Sikh Empire and the territories of Baháwalpur.

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Population —The Census of 1855 returned the total number of inhabitants in Khángarh District, as then composed at 211 920, or in the area comprising the present Muzaffargarh District at 251 104 The next Census in 1868 gave the population of the present District at 298,180, showing an increase of 47,076 or 18 1 per cent, since 1855 At the last enumeration in 1881, Montgomery District contained a population of 338,605 Supposing the Census for the earlier years to have been as accurate as that of 1881, these figures show an increase of population of 87,501, or 34 9 per cent, in the 26 years since 1855 of which 40,425, or 13 6 per cent, represents the increase in the second period of 13 years between 1868 and 1881 One of the principal causes of increase is thus stated in the Census Report Muzaffargarh has developed of late years more rapidly than almost any other District in the Province, the soil is naturally fertile, canal irrigation has been enormously extended, and it is not surprising that the immigrants are nearly three times as numerous as the emigrants The high percentage of males seems to show that the small emigration has been chiefly temporary, while the immigration appears to have been in a great measure permanent

The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows —Area of District, 3139 square miles, with 9 towns and 685 villages, or rather groups of houses and hamlets, number of houses, 62,215, number of families, 72,798 Total population, 338,605, namely, males 184,510, and females 154 095, proportion of males, 54 5 per cent Average density of the population, 108 persons per square mile, number of villages per square mile, 0 22, population per town or village, 488, houses per square mile, 33, inmates per house, 5 4 Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 76,781, and girls 64 038, total children, 140,819, or 41 6 per cent. of the population 15 years and upwards, males 107,729 and females 90,057, total adults, 197,766, or 58 4 per cent

Religious Divisions —Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans form the great bulk of the population, numbering 292,476, or 86 4 per cent. of the District population Hindus numbered 43,297, or 12 8 per cent., and Sikhs, 2783, or 0 8 per cent, Jai[illegible] and

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Population.—The Census of 1855 returned the total number of inhabitants in Khángarh District, as then composed, at 211,920, or in the area comprising the present Muzaffargarh District, at 251,104. The next Census in 1868 gave the population of the present District at 298,180, showing an increase of 47,076, or 18.1 per cent., since 1855. At the last enumeration in 1881, Montgomery District contained a population of 338,605. Supposing the Census for the earlier years to have been as accurate as that of 1881, these figures show an increase of population of 87,501, or 34.9 per cent., in the 26 years since 1855, of which 40,425, or 13.6 per cent., represents the increase in the second period of 13 years between 1868 and 1881. One of the principal causes of increase is thus stated in the Census Report: 'Muzaffargarh has developed of late years more rapidly than almost any other District in the Province; the soil is naturally fertile, canal irrigation has been enormously extended, and it is not surprising that the immigrants are nearly three times as numerous as the emigrants. . . . The high percentage of males seems to show that the small emigration has been chiefly temporary, while the immigration appears to have been in a great measure permanent.'

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Religious Divisions.—Classified according to religion, the Muhammadans form the great bulk of the population, numbering 292,476, or 86.4 per cent. of the District population. Hindus numbered 43,297, or 12.8 per cent.; and Sikhs, 2788, or 0.8 per cent.; Jains, 11; and

Christians, 33. The principal Muhammadan tribes include—Sayyids, 6928; Patháns, 3959; Báluchís, 58,356; and Shaikhs, 5046. These are the Muhammadans by race descent. The following tribes and castes are mainly Muhammadans by conversion in the times of the early Musalmán invasion, and most of them still contain a proportion of Hindus. The Játs, the most numerous class in the District, forming the great mass of the agricultural population, number 109,352; Rájputs, 7961; Kumbhárs, 6629; Juláhas, 13,625; Churas, 11,312; Mochís, 11,103; Tarkháns, 8024; Mallahs, 7967; Charhoas, 6318; Arains, 3991; and Mirásis, 3634. According to sect, the Muhammadans consist of—Sunnís, 290,054; Shiás, 2378; Wahábis, 28; Faráizis, 14; and 'others,' 2. The Sayyids and Patháns rank highest in general estimation among the Muhammadan population, owing to the influence of Muzaffar Khán, who gave estates to many of his compatriots. The Balúchís form the bulk of the population along the Indus, where they cultivate the soil, and also raise large herds of cattle and camels; many of them bear a bad reputation for predatory habits. The mass of the agricultural community, especially in the eastern portion of the District, consists of Játs, but the word here hardly possesses any ethnical significance, being indiscriminately applied to all the lower Muhammadan cultivating castes.

As a rule, the Muhammadans, especially the Balúchís and Játs, are very lax in their religious observances. Some of their ceremonies are borrowed from Hindu ritual, and among certain tribes a Bráhman priest as well as a *mulla* assists on certain occasions. The Shaikhs and Patháns are the strictest Muhammadans, but even they are said to have become a good deal Hinduized. The worship of the Muhammadans has been diverted from Allah the One God to that of their *pírs* or saintly men, who are credited with the ability to procure the objects of the disciples' vows. Saints' shrines are very numerous in Muzaffargarh, and pilgrimages to them are very common, being made both as a religious duty and for amusement.

Throughout the District, the Hindus have sunk into a position of complete social insignificance, with the exception of the Arorás or Kárárs, numbering 33,827, who form the shopkeeping class in all the villages, and have done much to develop agriculture by sinking wells. The other castes, exclusively or almost exclusively Hindus or Sikhs, are—Bráhmans, 1841; Mahtams, 2943; Labánas, 2315; Od, 1862; and Khattris, 1608. The form of Hinduism most prevalent is that of the worship of Vishnu in his Krishna incarnation.

Town and Rural Population.—Muzaffargarh does not contain a single town with upwards of five thousand inhabitants; but the following nine places have been constituted municipalities—MUZAFFARGARH, 2720; KHANGARH, 3417; KHAIRPUR, 2609; ALIPUR, 2555; SHAHR

Sultan, 2132, Sitpur, 2035, Jatoi, 2035, Kot Adu, 2574, and Daira Dinpana, 1779 Total urban population, 21,856, or 6 4 per cent of the District population The entire population, however, included within the municipal limits of the above towns, numbers 24,936, or 7 4 per cent. of the District population Of the villages, or collections of hamlets comprising the rural population 246 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 208 from two to five hundred 150 from five hundred to a thousand, 66 from one to two thousand, 18 from two to three thousand, and 6 from three to five thousand inhabitants As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the adult male population of Muzaffargarh into the following seven main classes—(1) Professional and official class, 3221 (2) domestic and menial class, 1098 (3) commercial class, 2241, (4) agricultural and pastoral class, 57,679, (5) industrial and manufacturing class, 25 632, (6) indefinite and non productive class, 11,237, and (7) unspecified class, 6621

Agriculture—The area under cultivation in 1883-84 amounted to 382,952 acres, of which 236 002 acres were irrigated from canals while 146,950 acres depended for water supply upon the natural inundations of the Indus and the Chenáb, or upon private wells Of the remaining area, 169,026 acres in the *thal* tract are utilized for grazing purposes, 924 504 acres are still available for cultivation while 511,525 acres are uncultivable waste. The rainfall of the District is so slight that no crops can be grown in reliance upon its precarious aid. Water however, is everywhere plentiful, except on the high *thal* in the north A network of canals and minor distributaries intersects the whole low land, worked by Persian wheels where the banks are high but used for inundation during the floods. The District, indeed, suffers not from want of water, but from want of proper control over it The canals have all been dug by the people themselves, and existed for the most part before the British annexation A small committee, elected by the contributories, manages the clearing of the channels and other similar duties, under Government supervision

The staple crops include wheat and barley for the *rabi* or spring harvest, and various millets for the *kharif* or autumn harvest In the northern tract, a small amount of indigo, cotton, and sugar-cane is added, in the south, a greater quantity of these commercial crops is raised, while in the central belt, around Khangarh, they are produced in much larger proportion, with a corresponding diminution in the cereals The following list shows the area under each crop in 1883 (including lands yielding two crops in the year) —*Rabi*—wheat, 191,605 acres, barley, 10,020, peas, 34,178, gram, 12,008, *jodr*, 15,735, *masur*, 6301, oil seeds (chiefly mustard), 17,970, drugs and spices, 4548, vegetables, 783, and miscellaneous crops, 2517 acres *Kharif*—rice, 34,512 acres, *bajra*, 13,304, other millets, 748, pulses, 6966,

oil-seeds (*til*), 9901; cotton, 20,708; indigo, 29,740; sugar-cane, 5540; vegetables, 245; and miscellaneous crops, 2256 acres. Of non-food crops, indigo forms the most lucrative staple. The average out-turn per acre of the principal products was returned as follows in 1883-84:—wheat, 727 lbs.; rice, 506 lbs.; inferior grains, 420 lbs.; cotton, 293 lbs.; indigo, 23 lbs.; unrefined sugar (*gur*), 1520 lbs. The agricultural stock of Muzaffargarh District in 1883-84 was returned as under—Cows and bullocks, 163,164; horses, 2319; ponies, 1594; donkeys, 7241; sheep and goats, 100,505; camels, 5260; ploughs, 42,120. Horse and donkey stallions were introduced into the District in 1880, to encourage breeding, which had been previously neglected; and horse fairs are now held annually at Muzaffargarh station.

Most of the land is cultivated by the proprietors in person; and rents, where they exist, are almost universally payable in kind. No material difference in welfare exists between tenants with occupancy rights and tenants-at-will. Land is still so abundant, that occupancy rights have no attraction, and tenants prefer not to be tied to the land, but to be able to change their cultivation when they like. At the time of the settlement in Sanáwán *tahsíl*, applications were common by tenants not to be recorded as having rights of occupancy, though they were by custom entitled to permanent possession. Tenants are eagerly sought after, and, as a rule, are free from any attempts at extortion on the part of the landlords, although some proprietors study to get their tenants into their debt in order to obtain a hold over them. Indebtedness is common, both among proprietors and tenants, but to a much greater extent among the Muhammadans than the Hindus. This difference in indebtedness is due to the difference in the habits of each class, the Muhammadans being often spendthrift and improvident, and without any other source of income beyond agriculture; while the Hindus are a thrifty class, and those who own and cultivate land almost always combine trade and money-lending with the cultivation of their fields.

The class of day-labourers consists mainly of wandering families from Khorasan (Khurásán), who immigrate temporarily for the winter, and leave for their own homes as soon as spring sets in. They receive their wages in grain at rates returned at 20 to 24 lbs. per diem; and these rates do not appear to have risen of late years. Skilled labour in the towns is paid at the rate of about 1s., and unskilled labour at from 3d. to 4½d. a day. Prices of food-grains ruled as follows in January 1884:—Wheat, 18 *sers* per rupee, or 6s. 3d. per cwt.; barley, 29 *sers* per rupee, or 3s. 10d. per cwt.; gram, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 10d. per cwt.; *joár*, 25 *sers* per rupee, or 4s. 6d. per cwt.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The mercantile classes of Muzaffargarh display great apathy with regard to distant trade. The carrying business

east and west lies entirely in the hands of the Povindah merchants of Khorasan (Khurásán) The chief articles of export include wheat, sugar, cotton, indigo, and *ghí*, which are sold by the cultivators to the petty dealers in the villages, who again dispose of them to the Povindahs The imports comprise English piece goods, iron, lime, sugar, *manjit*, rock salt, etc The only town with any commercial pretensions is Khairpur, in the extreme south Camels form the usual means of transport, wheeled vehicles being practically unknown Snuff is manufactured throughout the District generally, but more especially at Alipur, whence considerable quantities find their way to the Derajat and Baháwalpur The only other manufactures consist of country cloth and counterpanes, date leaf mats, and paper The principal road is that from Multan to Dera Ghazi Khán, crossing the Chenab at Sher Shah ferry, and running through Muzaffarpur town The District contains altogether 12 miles of metalled and 524 miles of unmetalled road, and water communication is afforded by the Indus and Chenab rivers

Administration.—The District staff ordinarily comprises a Deputy Commissioner, 1 Assistant and 2 extra Assistant Commissioners, together with the usual fiscal, medical, and constabulary officials Two *munsifs* or subordinate civil judges are stationed in the District The Imperial revenue in 1872-73 amounted to £63 543 of which sum the land tax (including fluctuating revenue and grazing tax) contributed £58,736 In 1883-84, the Imperial revenue amounted to £71,668, of which £39,825 was derived from fixed land revenue only Muzaffargarh contained in 1883 a total of 9 civil and revenue judges, and 11 magistrates During the same year the imperial police force numbered 369 officers and men, besides a municipal constabulary of 45 men The total machinery, therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 414 men, being at the rate of 1 policeman to every 7 6 square miles of area and every 818 of the population The District jail at Muzaffargarh received in 1883 a total number of 583 convicted prisoners, with a daily average of 62 Education still remains in a very backward state. The total number of children receiving instruction in 1875 was 1974, and the cost of the schools was returned at £640 In 1883-84 there were only 29 schools under Government inspection, attended by 1545 pupils This is exclusive of indigenous village schools uninspected by the Education Department, which in 1882 were returned as numbering 381, attended by 2189 pupils The Census Report of 1881 returned 3279 boys and 122 girls as under instruction, besides 10,598 males and 145 females able to read and write, but not under instruction As usual in the Punjab, the Hindus contribute a far larger proportion of scholars, relatively to their numbers, than the Muhammadans For fiscal and administrative purposes the District is sub-divided into 3 *tahsils*, having their head-quarters at Sanáwán in the

north, Muzaffargarh in the centre, and Alípur in the south. Municipalities have been established at the ten towns or villages of Muzaffargarh, Khángarh, Shahr Sultán, Jatoi, Alípur, Khairpur, Sítpur, Kinjar, Kot Adu, and Daera Dínpána. Their aggregate income in 1883-84 amounted to £2355, or an average of 2s. per head of the population (23,693) within municipal limits.

Medical Aspects.—The District is unusually hot and dry, but no records of temperature exist. The average annual rainfall for a period of twenty-one years ending 1881 amounted to only 5·9 inches, the maximum during that period being 12·4 inches in 1872-73, and the minimum, 1·2 inches in 1866-67. In 1883 the rainfall was 3·7 inches. Remittent and intermittent fevers and skin diseases prevail widely. Small-pox is now uncommon, and cholera all but unknown. The total number of deaths reported in 1883 amounted to 11,790, or 35 per thousand. Five Government charitable dispensaries, at Muzaffargarh, Alípur, Khángarh, Kot Adu, and Rangpur, afforded relief in 1883 to 43,968 persons, of whom 703 were in-patients. [For further particulars regarding Muzaffargarh, see the *Gazetteer of Muzaffargarh District*, published under the authority of the Punjab Government (Lahore, 1884); Mr. E. Stack's *Memorandum upon Current Land Settlements in the temporarily Settled Parts of British India*, p. 330; the *Punjab Census Report* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Punjab Government.]

Muzaffargarh.—Central *tahsíl* of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab; situated between 29° 40′ and 30° 16′ N., and between 70° 52′ and 71° 20′ 30″ E. long.; consisting of the middle belt between the Chenáb and the Indus, south of the *thal*, and fertilized by the annual inundations of both rivers. Area (1881), 925 square miles; number of towns and villages, 391; houses, 30,050; families, 32,171. Population (1868) 130,724; (1881) 146,885, namely, males 80,351, and females 66,534, showing a total increase since 1868 of 16,161 souls, or 12·3 per cent., in thirteen years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 125,820, or 85·7 per cent.; Hindus, 20,390, or 13·9 per cent.; Sikhs, 631; Jains, 11; and Christians, 33. Of the 391 towns and villages, 281 were mere hamlets of less than five hundred inhabitants; 74 villages contained between five hundred and a thousand; 28 from one to two thousand; while 8 had upwards of two thousand inhabitants. The average area under cultivation for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 was 269 square miles, or 172,252 acres, the area under the principal crops being—wheat, 84,893 acres; rice, 9984 acres; *joár*, 6512 acres; *bájra*, 4787 acres; gram, 4564 acres; *moth*, 2687 acres; cotton, 15,643 acres; indigo, 10,083 acres; and sugar-cane, 3350 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £27,350. The administrative staff, including officers attached to the District head-

quarters, consists of a Deputy Commissioner, 3 Assistant or extra Assistant Commissioners, 1 *tahsíldár*, and 1 *munsif*. These officers preside over 6 civil and 5 criminal courts. Number of police circles (*thánás*), 6; strength of regular police, 102 men; village watch or rural police (*chaukídárs*), 157 men.

Muzaffargarh.—Town, municipality, and administrative head-quarters of Muzaffargarh District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 30° 4' 30" N., and long. 71° 14' E., on the road from Multan to Dera Ghazi Khán, 6 miles from the present cold weather bed of the Chenáb. The town derives its name from Muzaffar Khán, an Afghan Governor of Multán, who fixed his residence here about 1795. Population (1881) 2720—namely, Hindus, 1592; Muhammadans, 1064; Sikhs, 36; Jains, 7; 'others,' 21. Number of houses, 702. Municipal income (1883-84), £422, or an average of 3s. 1½d. per head.

Muzaffargarh consists of a fort built by Nawáb Muzaffar Khan, formed by a circular shaped wall 30 feet high enclosing a space with a diameter of 160 yards; and of suburbs which surround the fort on all sides, so as to nearly conceal it from view. The fort wall has 16 bastions, and battlements all round. It is built with a veneer of burnt brick, which has peeled away in many places, and a backing of mud over 6 feet thick. The road from Múltan entering the town cuts off a segment at the north end of the fort, which is bisected by the main *bázár* running north and south. The houses within the fortification are built with burnt bricks where they face the street, but elsewhere generally with mud. They are chiefly occupied by Hindus. The suburbs round the fort are generally mud built. They are more extensive on the south side, where they are occupied by the poorer Muhammadans. On the north side live the District officials. The principal streets have been paved with brick, but the pavement generally requires renewal. Drinking water is obtained from wells outside and inside the town. Muzaffargarh fort was stormed by the army of Ranjit Singh in 1818. It became the head-quarters of the District administration under the British Government in 1859, after Khángarh had been abandoned in consequence of inundation. The floods of the Chenáb are now approaching Muzaffargarh, and in 1873 they destroyed a considerable portion of the suburbs.

The town possesses no manufactures, and the trade is of a purely local character. The proximity to Multán city interferes with the function the town would otherwise perform in the collection of agricultural produce and the distribution of European goods. The public buildings consist of the usual Government courts and offices, police station, *sarái* or native inn, church, post office, dispensary, travellers' bungalow, and the municipal hall with its public library. The public buildings and dwellings of the European residents are situated about

a quarter of a mile north of the town, at the intersection of the Dera Ghází Khán and Alípur roads.

Muzaffarkhána (*Musafirkhána*). — *Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Sultánpur District, Oudh; bounded north by Rám Sanehi Ghát and Bíkánpur *tahsíls*, east by Sultánpur, south by Ráipur, and west by Salon and Mahárájganj. Muzaffarkhána comprises the 3 *parganás* of Isauli, Jagdíspur, and Gaura Jamún. Area, 396 square miles, of which 224 are cultivated. Population (1869) 247,726; (1881) 221,229, namely, males 106,984, and females 114,245, showing a decrease since 1869 of 26,497, or of 10·7 per cent. in twelve years. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 186,552, and Muhammadans, 34,677. Average density of population, 556 persons per square mile. Of the 433 towns and villages comprising the *parganá*, 272 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, £28,083. In 1884, Muzaffarkhána *tahsíl* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court, with 4 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 52 men, and a village watch or rural police of 926 *chaukidárs*.

Muzaffarnagar.—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of the North-Western Provinces, lying between 29° 11′ 30″ and 29° 45′ 15″ N. lat., and between 77° 3′ 45″ and 78° 10′ 45″ E. long. Area, 1656 square miles. Population (1881) 758,444 persons. Muzaffarnagar is a District of the Meerut (Merath) Division. It is bounded on the north by Sahâranpur District; on the east by the river Ganges, separating it from Bijnaur District; on the south by Meerut (Merath) District; and on the west by the Jumna (Jamuná) river, separating it from the Punjab District of Karnál. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of MUZAFFARNAGAR.

Physical Aspects. — The District of Muzaffarnagar lies near the northern extremity of the Doáb or great alluvial plain between the Ganges and the Jumna, and shares to a large extent in the general monotony of that level region. Its central portion consists of an elevated plateau, cut into three unequal divisions by the rivers Hindan and Kálí Nadi, whose confluence takes place near the southern boundary of the District. The first of these divisions, that lying close along the bank of the Ganges, is covered in its northern part by one continuous swamp, which results from the overflow of the little river Soláni and percolation from the Ganges Canal.

South of this marshy tract stretches the *khádar* or low-lying valley of the Ganges, over which the river runs freely in every direction, frequently changing its course, and rendering cultivation hazardous or impracticable. At places patches of tillage may be seen amid the rank vegetation with which the *khádar* is overrun, but the greater part is densely covered by coarse grasses, interspersed with occasional clumps of tamarisk. In this tract, too, percolation from

the Ganges Canal is working evil, and village after village has been injured by the increasing marsh area, rendering year by year fresh fields useless, and causing cultivation to dwindle Canal irrigation has made the upland so much more attractive to cultivators, that it is difficult to keep the inhabitants of the valley to the tract that they have occupied from time immemorial The population is said to be here decreasing, and wild animals to be increasing so that between the deterioration of the soil, the superior attractions held out elsewhere to tenants, and the increasing difficulty of cultivation the future prospects of this tract are not promising The *khádar*, however, will always be a useful grazing ground, and it may perhaps be made to yield a larger supply of timber for the ploughs and sugar mills of the prosperous upland than it does at present.

This lowland valley is succeeded on the west by the first of the three central plateaux, extending as far as the Kali Nadi It is reached by a low terrace, deeply cut into ravines by the surface drainage, and of little agricultural value The upland region is naturally sandy and unfertile, but it is watered and enriched by the main line of the Ganges Canal, which enters the District from SAHARANPUR, and gives off the Anupshahr branch near the village of Jauli Under the influence of irrigation, the soil is rapidly improving, and the character of the crops has been greatly raised

The next division, passing westward, is the triangular upland enclosed between the valleys of the Hindan and the Káli Nadi These minor streams flow in deep channels, but the soil is naturally fertile, and the water obtained from wells is sufficient to turn it into a highly cultivated tract The Deoband branch of the Ganges Canal was introduced into the Hindan Kali *doáb* a few years ago The land is high throughout the centre of this tract, and is naturally fertile, but the water level is, as a rule, at a great depth The eastern and western portions of this central highland slope down to the rivers on either side, and are there marked by much broken ground, and a tendency, especially in the south, to an increase of ravines which cut into the good land above. The lowland along the Hindan is marked by steeper banks, is larger in area, broader and more fertile than that of the Káli Nadi Along the latter river, several estates have been injured by the appearance of *reh*, due to excessive saturation, and the overflow of the river itself in time of flood

The westernmost plateau is that which stretches between the Hindan and the Jumna, and is watered by the Eastern Jumna Canal In the neighbourhood of the Jumna, much of the land is covered with *dhak* jungle, through which occasional oases of light sandy soil crop out in little elevated bosses, but elsewhere the labour of the villagers and the

spread of irrigation have been successful in inducing a high state of cultivation.

On the whole, although Muzaffarnagar is not so flourishing as the rich Districts to the south, its condition is far above the average of Indian rural tracts. In the north-eastern corner, however, as above stated, the spread of swamps is rapidly driving back the cultivator, whose place is usurped by wild hog and hog-deer. Measures are being taken for the reclamation of this neglected region by the deposit of silt, which will doubtless prove exceptionally fertile, owing to the mass of organic debris brought down by the flooded Soláni.

History.—Tradition represents Muzaffarnagar as having formed a portion of the Pándava kingdom which had its capital at Hastinápur in the adjoining District of MEERUT, and at a more historical date as being included in the dominions of Prithwi Ráj, the Chauhán ruler of Delhi. Authentic history first shows us the country around Muzaffarnagar at the time of the Musalmán conquest in the 13th century, and it remained a dependency of the various dynasties who ruled at Delhi until the final dissolution of their empire. The earliest wave of colonists probably consisted of Aryan settlers, Bráhman and Rájput. They were succeeded by the Játs, who occupied the whole southern portion of the District, where their descendants still form the chief landowning class. At a later date, the Gújars took possession of the poorer tracts which the Játs had left unoccupied, and they too are still to be found as *zamíndárs*. Finally, with the Muhammadan irruptions, bodies of Shaikhs, Sayyids, and Patháns entered Muzaffarnagar, and parcelled out amongst themselves the remainder of the territory.

Timúr paid one of his sanguinary visits to the District in 1399, when all the infidel inhabitants whom he could capture were mercilessly put to the sword. Under Akbar, Muzaffarnagar was included in the *sarkár* of Sahâranpur. During the 17th century, the Sayyid family of Bárha rose to great eminence, and filled many important offices about the court. Their ancestors are said to have settled in Muzaffarnagar about the year 1350, and to have enjoyed the patronage of the Sayyid dynasty which ruled at Delhi in the succeeding century. In 1414, Sultán Khizr Khán conferred the control of Saháranpur on Sayyid Salím, the chief of their fraternity; and from that time onward they rose rapidly to territorial power and court influence. Under Akbar and his successors, various branches of the Bárha stock became the leading landowners in the Province. They were celebrated as daring military leaders, being employed by the Emperors on all services of danger, from the Indus to the Narbadá (Nerbudda). It was mainly through their aid that the victory of Agra was won in 1707, by which Bahádur Sháh made good his claim to the imperial title. The part which they bore in the

revolution of 1712, when Farukhsiyar was elevated to the throne, belongs to the general history of India. As a reward for the important services rendered on that occasion, Sayyid Abdullá was appointed Wazir of the Empire, and Sayyid Husáin Ali was made commander in chief On their fall in 1724 the power of the Barha family began to wane, until, in 1737, they were almost exterminated, on a pretext of rebellious designs, by their inveterate enemy the Wazir Kamar ud din

During the whole of the disastrous 18th century, Muzaffarnagar suffered from the same Sikh incursions which devastated the remainder of the Upper Doáb The Sikhs were assisted in their raids by the Gujars whose roving semi nomad life made them ever ready to join in rebellion against the Government of the time As regularly as the crops were cut, Sikh chieftains poured their predatory hordes into the Doab, and levied an organized black mail The country was divided between them into regular circuits, and each chieftain collected requisitions from his own circuit only It was during this period of unsettled and anarchic insecurity that those mud forts began to spring up which became in time so characteristic of the Upper Doáb In 1788 the District fell into the hands of the Maráthas, under whom the famous military adventurer, George Thomas, was appointed 'Warden of the Marches,' and endeavoured with some success to prevent the constant raids across the Jumna The Begam Samru of Sardhana in MEERUT DISTRICT held large possessions in the southern *parganás* at the end of the last century

After the fall of ALIGARH in 1803 the whole Doab as far north as the Siwálik Hills came, without a blow, under the power of the British, and Muzaffarnagar was at first attached to Moradábád A final Sikh invasion occurred in the following year, encouraged by the advance of Holkar's forces, but it was promptly suppressed by Colonel Burn, who drove the intruders back across the river In 1804, Muzaffarnagar was included in the new District of Sahâranpur, and in 1824, the nucleus of the present District was formed by the creation of a sub-Collectorship with jurisdiction over 13 out of the existing 17 *parganás* No events of importance disturbed the peace of Muzaffarnagar for many years after the conquest. The construction of the great canals gave an impetus to agriculture, and the security of British rule allowed the cultivators to repair their fortunes, which had suffered greatly during the long anarchy of the Sikh and Maráthá struggle

The first incident which broke the course of civil administration was the Mutiny of 1857 On the news of the outbreak at MEERUT, the Magistrate of Muzaffarnagar, influenced by exaggerated reports of a general rising throughout the Doáb, issued orders that all the public offices should be closed This measure naturally produced a general impression that British rule was suspended At first there was no

open rebellion, and the semblance of government was kept up, but plunder and incendiarism went on unmolested. At length, on the 21st of June, the 4th Irregulars rose in revolt, and murdered their commanding officer, as well as another European, after which they marched off to Shámli. Five days later, a party of the 3rd Cavalry arrived at the town; and on the first of July, Mr. R. M. Edwards came in from Sahāranpur with a body of Gúrkhas, and took charge of the administration. Vigorous measures were at once adopted to repress crime and collect revenue, the good effects of which became quickly apparent. The western *parganás*, however, remained in open revolt; and the rebels of Thάná Bhawán attacked Shámli, where they massacred 113 persons in cold blood. Reinforcements shortly after arrived from Meerut; and Thάná Bhawán, being evacuated by the rebels, had its walls and gates razed to the ground. After this occurrence no notable event took place, though the troops were kept perpetually on the move, marching back and forwards along the bank of the Ganges, and watching the mutineers on the opposite shore. Order was restored long before the end of the Mutiny.

Population.—In 1853, the population of Muzaffarnagar was returned at 672,861 persons. The Census of 1865 showed an increase to a total of 682,212 persons. In 1872 the population was returned at 690,107 (on the present area of the District, 1656 square miles). The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a further increase of the population to 758,444, being an advance of 68,337, or 9·9 per cent., in the nine years between 1872 and 1881. The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1656·1 square miles, with 16 towns and 896 villages; number of houses, 97,018. Total population, 758,444, namely, males 409,436, and females 349,008; proportion of males, 54 per cent. Average density of the population, 458 persons per square mile; towns or villages per square mile, ·55; persons per town or village, 832; houses per square mile, 58·5; inmates per house, 7·8. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, boys 149,319, and girls 122,865; total children, 272,184, or 35·9 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 260,117, and females 226,143; total adults, 486,260, or 64·1 per cent. The excessive preponderance of males must be set down, as in so many other cases, to the former prevalence of female infanticide, which Government has done all in its power to suppress, but which has not yet been entirely stamped out. In 1874, no less than 94 villages were still on the 'proclaimed list' under the Infanticide Act. In 1881, out of a total of 133,141 of the suspected castes (Játs, Gújars, Rájputs, Tagás, and Ahírs), the percentage of females was as low as 42·1 per cent.

Religion.—As regards the religious classification in 1881, Hindus

were returned as numbering 535,046, or 70 5 per cent. of the population Muhammadans numbered 213,842, or 28 2 per cent The remainder of the population consists of—Jains, 9316, Sikhs, 186, and Christians, 54 Of the higher classes of Hindus, the Bráhmans numbered 42,100 in 1881 The Rájputs are numerically a small body, reckoned at only 20,066 persons, but they hold large landed property in the District. The Baniyás are unusually numerous, being returned at 33 445 Many of them are Jains, and they form a wealthy and prosperous mercantile community The 'other Hindu castes' are set down at a total of 439 435, composing the immense majority of the population The Chamárs head the list, as usual in the Doáb, with 107,794 persons, their position is still scarcely removed from that of rural serfs, and they form the labouring class in the District Next come the Játs, numbering 71,468, who hold a large portion of the soil as *zamindars*, and are an active enterprising and intelligent tribe The Gújars, 26 957 in number, and Tagás (13 785) are also among the landowners in Muzaffarnagar The other principal Hindu castes include—Kahárs, 45,498, Bhangis, 29 348, Kachhís, 22 939, Gadarias, 14,332, Kumbhárs, 13 830, Barháis, 11 167 Náis, 8601, and Mális, 7279

Of the Musalmán population, the Shaikhs are far the most numerous, most of them being the descendants of converts from Hinduism The Sayyids, once the dominant race, are now rapidly sinking in the social scale, through improvidence and bad management, which have led them to mortgage or resign their estates to Hindu Baniyás

Town and Rural Population —Muzaffarnagar contains a considerable urban population In 1881, sixteen towns were returned as each containing a population exceeding five thousand These are—KAIRANA 18 374, MUZAFFARNAGAR, the civil station and administrative head quarters of the District, 15,080, KHANDALA, 11,109, THANA BHAWAN, 7628, KHATAULI, 7574, SHAMLI, 7359, MIRANPUR, 7267, JALALABAD, 6592, JANSATH, 6284, BUDHANA, 6232, BHUKARHERI, 6195, PUR, 5735, JHANJHANA, 5655, SISAULI, 5391, CHARTHAWAL, 5300, and GANGERU, 5275 These sixteen towns contain an aggregate of 127,059 inhabitants, or 16 7 per cent of the total population of the District Most of them, however, are rather overgrown villages than towns in the strict sense, as the greater part of their inhabitants subsist by agriculture or its subsidiary operations. The 912 towns and villages are thus classified according to size—195 are mere hamlets with less than two hundred inhabitants, 273 contain from two to five hundred, 241 from five hundred to a thousand, 119 from one to two thousand, 49 from two to three thousand, 19 from three to five thousand, 13 from five to ten thousand, while 3 towns contain between ten and twenty thousand inhabitants Hindi is the ordinary language of the

inhabitants of the *khádar* tract, while Urdu is commonly spoken by the people of the uplands.

As regards occupation, the Census of 1881 returned the male population of Muzaffarnagar District under the following six headings:—(1) Professional class, including military and officials, 5319; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, 1404; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 8597; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 161,945; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 78,291; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 153,880.

Agriculture.—Muzaffarnagar is essentially an agricultural District, but tillage has not yet been carried to so high a pitch as in some other portions of the Doáb. In 1871, out of a total area amounting to 1,033,468 acres, 629,735 acres were under cultivation. In 1883-84, out of a total area of 1,060,561 acres, 707,380 acres, or 66·7 per cent., were under cultivation, of which 166,806 acres were irrigated from the Government canals, and 93,470 acres by private irrigation from wells, while 447,104 acres were unirrigated. Of the uncultivated area, 200,663 acres were returned as grazing lands, or cultivable, while 152,518 acres were uncultivable waste. In the *rabí* harvest, the chief crops are wheat, barley, millet, and pulse. The *kharíf* harvest includes some of these grains, besides sugar-cane, cotton, and indigo; it is the most important both as regards the extent of cultivation and the value of crops.

The best lands produce two harvests in the year. In 1871 there were 224,812 acres under wheat and barley, 54,154 under *joár* and *bájra*, 44,757 under rice, 32,781 under cotton; and 42,829 acres were planted with sugar-cane. The corresponding figures for 1883-84 show a considerable advance in cultivation. In that year, wheat and barley occupied 299,926 acres; *joár* and *bájra*, 65,104 acres; rice, 40,765 acres; cotton, 29,296 acres; sugar-cane, 54,645; and indigo, 5727 acres. The use of manure is increasing. Irrigation is widely practised both from wells and canals. In 1883-84, no fewer than 166,806 acres were watered from one or other of the great canals. Under their influence there has been a steady increase in the cultivation of the superior crops, such as cereals, sugar-cane, and cotton, to the exclusion of the poorer pulses and millets. Some harm has been done by over-saturation and the efflorescence of the destructive *reh* salt; but this is now being remedied by a Government drainage system.

The condition of the peasantry is comfortable, and the village communities are prosperous and intelligent, especially among the Játs and Gújars. Most of the land is cultivated by husbandmen having rights of occupancy; while the number of tenants-at-will is rapidly

declining under the provisions of recent legislation The prevailing tenures are the various forms of *pattidari*, which may be divided into three classes, perfect and imperfect *pattidári* and *bhdyachara*, and are defined as follows Where the separate shares of each individual are known as so many portions of a *bigha*, and are so recorded in the proprietary register, but while a joint responsibility of all the shares for the general liabilities continues, the tenure is called imperfect *pattidari* Here, although the joint responsibility remains intact, the accounts of each individual share are kept separate as soon as the common land (*shamilat*) is divided, the tenure becomes perfect *pattidári* In process of time the land becomes minutely sub divided, and the land actually in each man s possession becomes the measure of his rights, and hence arise the *bhdyachara* tenures There is a growing tendency for separate ownership to replace the old communal system

Of the total male adult agricultural population (159 302) of Muzaffar nagar, 43 841 are returned as landholders, 1356 as estate servants, 68,255 as cultivators, and 45,850 as agricultural labourers Average area cultivated by each male adult agriculturist, 4 33 acres The total population, however, dependent on the soil numbers 430 946, or 56 82 per cent. of the total District population Of a total District area of 1656 1 square miles 79 3 square miles are held revenue free, while 1576 8 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 1019 8 square miles are cultivated, 333 6 square miles are available for cultivation, and 223 4 square miles are uncultivable waste Total Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £144,503 or an average of 4s 4½d per cultivated acre Amount of rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses £209,063, or an average of 6s 0½d per cultivated acre Rents are more frequently paid in kind than in cash In the latter case they often vary with the crop As a whole, they run from 7s 6d to 13s 6d per acre for irrigated lands, and from 2s 3d to 5s 3d per acre for unirrigated lands

The average out turn of sugar-cane per acre is about 15 cwts, valued at £7, 4s, that of cotton, about 1 cwt 2 qrs, valued at £2, and that of wheat, about 9 cwts, valued at £1, 10s Wages and prices have both been on the increase since the Mutiny, probably keeping pace with one another Bricklayers, carpenters, and smiths receive about 9d a day, and unskilled labourers, about 3d, boys, 1⅝d Agricultural labourers are generally paid in kind Prices ruled as follows in 1884 —Wheat, 19¼ *sers* per rupee, or 5s 10d per cwt, gram, 25¾ *sers* per rupee, or 4s 4½d per cwt, barley, 33 *sers* per rupee, or 3s 5d per cwt, *jodr*, 28¾ *sers* per rupee, or 3s 11½d per cwt, *bájra*, 23 *sers* per rupee, or 4s 10d per cwt., common rice, 12 *sers* per rupee, or 9s 4d per cwt, and best rice, 6½ *sers*, or 17s 4d per cwt.

Natural Calamities.—The Ganges and Jumna (Jamuná) occasionally shift their channels, and thus cause destruction of villages on their banks; while the Hindan and its tributary the Káli Nadi are both liable to floods, which, in the ill-defined ravine of the latter stream, often effect considerable damage. Muzaffarnagar suffered also, before the opening of the canals, from famines, caused by drought; but this source of distress has been greatly mitigated, and its danger for the future minimized, by the spread of irrigation. The scarcity of 1860-61 pressed less severely on this District than on many others; and in 1868-69 the difference was still more marked. Large stores of grain were hoarded in the grain-pits, and the existence of these supplies contributed to keep down prices. But at the close of the year 1868, wheat had risen to 9 *sers* per rupee, or 12s. 5¼d. per cwt., and measures of relief became necessary. From December 1868 till October 1869, an average of 195 persons were daily employed upon famine works; while, for the greater portion of that time, 53 persons received gratuitous relief daily. Nevertheless, grain was abundant, and continued to be exported in large quantities; and such distress as existed was due rather to the external demand than to failing supplies.

Commerce and Trade, etc. — Muzaffarnagar is almost entirely an agricultural District, and its trade is accordingly confined to the raw material which it produces. Jalálábád is the great grain-mart of the surrounding country. In average years, Muzaffarnagar can spare about 80,000 tons of food-grains for export. The means of communication, though not quite so good as in the region immediately to the south, are yet ample for the present resources. The Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway runs through the heart of the District for 26 miles, and has two stations within its boundaries—one at Khátauli and the other at Muzaffarnagar town. There are 60 miles of 'first-class,' 200 miles of 'second-class,' and 120 miles of 'third-class' roads. Much traffic also passes by the Ganges Canal, on which Khátauli is the chief commercial depôt.

Administration. — In 1860, the total revenue of Muzaffarnagar District was returned at £140,785; of which £101,616, or more than two-thirds, was derived from the land-tax, and about £20,000 from canal collections. At the same date, the total expenditure was £37,886, or little more than one-fourth of the revenue. In 1883, the total receipts had risen to £165,408; of which sum the land-tax contributed £122,217, or three-fourths of the whole; stamps realized £11,088; excise, £7449; provincial rates, £15,589; assessed taxes, £3183; registration, £1327; irrigation and navigation, £2285. Though the land revenue has been constantly rising of late years, yet it still presses lightly on the cultivators, as the increase of value, owing to irrigation, has more than kept pace with the higher rates of assessment;

and further improvement may be expected in future years. In 1883 the District was administered by 3 covenanted civilians, and contained 21 magisterial and 10 revenue courts The regular District and town police numbered 668 men of all grades in 1883, being 1 policeman to every 2 47 square miles and every 1135 inhabitants, the total cost of maintenance was £6350 This force was supplemented by 1222 village watchmen (*chaukīdārs*), whose maintenance entails an expenditure of £4447 per annum The total machinery therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 1890 men, maintained at a cost of £10,797, being an average of 1 policeman to every 0 88 square mile and every 401 inhabitants, and an average cost of 3½d per head of the population The number of persons convicted of all offences in 1883 was 1361, or 1 conviction for every 557 inhabitants

The criminal administration of Muzaffarnagar was formerly beset with difficulties, on account of the numerous gipsy communities who frequented the District, but a more vigorous system at present exists, and the worst clan of vagrants has been settled in a colony at Bidauli, under police surveillance There is one jail, the average daily number of prisoners in which in 1883 was 159 The total number of prisoners admitted was 634 The cost per prisoner was £4, 14s 10d, and the average earnings of each amounted to 15s 7½d

Education is making but slow progress In 1860 there were 5159 children under instruction In 1870 the number of schools was returned at 320, and the pupils at 6507, while the sum expended upon education was £2282 In 1874 the schools numbered 443, and the pupils 7401, while the sum devoted to education had risen to £3148 *In 1883-84 there were 128 schools attended by 4115 scholars under* Government inspection This is independent of uninspected schools, which are included in the figures for the earlier years The Census of 1881 returned 6014 boys and 90 girls as under instruction, besides 21,215 males and 161 females able to read and write, but not under instruction

The District is sub-divided into 4 *tahsils* and 17 *parganas*, with an aggregate in 1883-84 of 1845 estates, each paying an average land revenue of £66 The District contains 3 municipalities—MUZAFFARNAGAR, KANDHLA, and KAIRANA The aggregate revenue in 1883-84 amounted to £3168, of which £2632 was derived from taxation, and their expenditure to £3213, the average incidence of municipal taxation was 1s 2½d per head of the population Besides the regularly constituted municipalities, several other towns levy a house tax for conservancy, sanitary, and police purposes

Sanitary Aspects—The climate of Muzaffarnagar is comparatively cool, owing to the proximity of the hills The average heat is decidedly greater than in Sahāranpur, though perceptibly less than in Meerut, but no thermometrical observations are available. The

maunds can pass up and down. In the rains, boats are only able to carry half loads up-stream.

The Bághmatí enters the District from Nepál at a point 2 miles north of Maniári *ghát*, or 17 miles north-west from Sítámarhi, and after flowing south-west in a more or less irregular course for some 30 miles, strikes off in a south-easterly direction, and leaves the District near Hátha (20 miles east of Muzaffarpur town). At its nearest bend, *i.e.* by Hathauri *ghát*, the river runs 10 miles north-east of Muzaffarpur. It is navigable in the rains from the frontier to Maniári for boats of 250 *maunds*, from Maniári to Gaigháti for boats of 500 *maunds*, and after passing Gaigháti (18 miles east of Muzaffarpur) it becomes navigable for boats of 2000 *maunds*. In the dry season the Bághmatí is fordable, and in some places not more than knee-deep.

The Buri Gandak enters the District from Champáran near Baryápur (20 miles north-west of Muzaffarpur), and flows in a south-easterly direction and almost parallel to the Baghmatí till it leaves the District near Pusá (20 miles south-east of Muzaffarpur). The town of Muzaffarpur stands on its right bank. The river is navigable in the rains for boats of 1000 *maunds* up to Muzaffarpur, and for boats of 500 *maunds* up to Baryápur. In the dry season only boats of 100 *maunds* can get up to Muzaffarpur. Both this river and the Bághmatí are very apt to shift their courses.

The Lakhandai enters the District from Nepál near Itharwa (18 miles north of Sítámarhi), passes through the town of Sitamarhi, and thence flows in a south-easterly direction, skirting the indigo factories of Dumrá, Runi Saidpur, Ouror, and Tiwárah, and joins the Baghmati near Hátha. The stream rises and falls very quickly, and its current is rapid. It is navigable in the rains only for boats of 500 *maunds* up to Sítámarhi, during which season large quantities of oil-seeds are sent down for transport to Calcutta.

The Bya issues out of the Gandak near Sáhibganj (34 miles north-west of Muzaffarpur), and flows in a south easterly direction past the indigo factories of Durea, Seráya, Chak Daulat, Batanlea, Karhari, and Chitwára, and leaves the District at Jandhara (30 miles south of Muzaffarpur). The head of the stream has much silted up of late years. The Bya is largely fed by drainage from *chaurs*, and attains its greatest height when the Ganges and Gandak are both in flood, being filled by inundation from the former, and being checked in its course by the high waters of the latter river, which it joins a few miles south of Dalsingh Sarai (in Darbhangah District). Ordinarily, the stream is not navigable, but in the rains it is navigated throughout its entire length by boats of 100 *maunds*. Formerly the stream was much used for irrigation.

The most important of the minor streams are the Purána Dar

Bághmati and the Adhwára (known as it approaches Darbhangah District by the name of Little Bághmati), which flow southwards from Nepál, at some 6 or 7 miles' distance from Sítámarhi, on the west and east sides respectively These two streams are invaluable for irrigation in years of drought, when scores of dams are thrown across them

Population—The population of Muzaffarpur District, as at present constituted, after the division of Tirhut into the two separate Districts of Muzaffarpur and Darbhangah in 1875, amounted in 1872 to 2,245,408, while in 1881 the population was returned at 2,582,060, showing an increase of 336,652, or 14 9 per cent, in nine years The results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows.—Area of District, 3003 square miles, with 16 towns and 5138 villages, number of houses, 380,810, of which 368,254 were occupied. Total population, 2,582,060, namely, males 1 265,731, and females 1,316,329 Proportion of males in total population, 49 1 per cent, average density of population, 859 8 persons per square mile, villages per square mile, 1 72, persons per village, 501, houses per square mile, 126 8, inmates per house 7 Classified according to sex and age, the population in 1881 comprised—15 years and under, boys 525,063, and girls 499,880, total children, 1,024,943, or 39 7 per cent of the population 15 years and upwards, males 740,668, and females 816,449, total adults, 1,557 117, or 60 3 per cent

Religion—Classified according to religion, Hindus number 2,265,380, or 87 7 per cent. of the population, Muhammadans, 316,308, or 12 2 per cent., and Christians, 372 The higher classes of Hindus include —Brahmans, 96,206, Babhans, military and cultivating Bráhmans, 171,633, Rájputs, 167,594, Káyasths, 42,552, and Baniyás, 30,262 Among the low castes, the most numerically important are the following —Goálás, 299,127, the most numerous caste in the District, Dosádhs, 179,827, Koeris, 141,551, Chamars, 122,837, Kurmis, 115,117, Malás, 89 863, Kandus, 82,152, Dhanuks, 52,773, Nuniyás, 41,616, Lohárs, 38,897, Napits, 38,642, Musahárs, 33,657, Kumbhars, 33,408, Tatwás, 32,725, Sunris, 32,656, Kalwárs, 29,039, Dhobís, 28,433, Kahárs, 25,573, Tántis, 23,921, Sonárs, 23,899, Binds, 21,552, Barhais, 16,291, Baruís, 12,350, Pásis, 11,690, Malis, 11,543, Madaks, 10,722, Gareris, 10,530, and Doms, 10,042 The aboriginal population numbers 19,496, but they are returned as Hindus in the religious classification of the Census Caste rejecting Hindus, 6524 The 36 most numerous Hindu castes contain in all 96 5 per cent. of the Hindu population of the District.

Town and Rural Population —Muzaffarpur District contains sixteen towns with a population exceeding five thousand, namely— MUZAFFARPUR, population (1881) 42,460, HAJIPUR, 25,078, LALGANJ,

16,431; MOHNAR, 7447; SARSUNDHA, 6805; SITAMARHI, 6125; GHATARO, 5982; JAJWARALI, 5858; BAHILWARA, 5796; KANTA, 5627; SEOHAR, 5475; JARANG, 5273; MANIKCHAK, 5166; BASANTPUR, 5107; DHANAULI, 5052; SINGHARA BUZURG, 5032. These sixteen towns contain a total urban population of 158,714, or 6·1 per cent. of the inhabitants of the District, leaving 2,423,346, or 93·9 per cent., for the rural population. The Census of 1881 classified the 5154 towns and villages according to size as follows:—1474 contained less than two hundred inhabitants; 1941 from two to five hundred; 1253 from five hundred to a thousand; 386 from one to two thousand; 68 from two to three thousand; 16 from three to five thousand; 13 from five to ten thousand; and 3 from ten to twenty thousand inhabitants.

As regards occupation, the male population was returned in 1881 under the following six classes:—(1) Professional and official, 10,635; (2) domestic servants, lodging and hotel keepers, etc., 42,447; (3) commercial, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 32,151; (4) agricultural and pastoral, including gardeners, 456,404; (5) manufacturers and artisans, 77,233; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers, male children, etc., 646,861.

The material condition of the people is for the most part poor, principally by reason of over-population and consequent low wages. In the southern parts of the Hájípur Sub-division, whether from the more advanced state of agriculture, the superior fertility of the soil, or other causes, the cultivators are in good circumstances; but in most parts of the District the condition of the mass of the people is pinched and stinted. For the improvement of the purely labouring classes, it is difficult to suggest any measures. The supply of labour is much greater than the demand; and the natural consequences of this state of things can only be mitigated by emigration on a large scale, or by temporary immigrations to thinly-peopled Districts at times of harvest. The latter practice already prevails to a certain extent, and, with the increased facilities of travelling afforded by the Tirhút State Railway, will, it is hoped, become more popular year by year. Although the prices of food-grains have risen very considerably during the present century, the wages of field-labourers have remained stationary, 1 *anna* and 1½ *anna* per diem being still the usual rates paid to able-bodied labourers at the present day. Owing to an insufficient protection to the interests of the cultivators, much of the profits that should have been theirs has been swallowed up by other classes. The result is that in good years the majority of the cultivators enjoy a bare sufficiency of the necessaries of life, while in years of short harvests they suffer privation and sink deeper and deeper in debt.

Agriculture.—Statistics are not available regarding the area under cultivation or that of the principal crops; but the introductory paragraph

in the section of this article dealing with the physical aspects briefly mentions the prevailing crops in the different tracts of the District. Certain figures regarding special crops, such as poppy and tobacco, are given below

Manufactures.—The chief manufactures of Muzaffarpur District are indigo, saltpetre opium, and tobacco Such other manufactures as exist are merely conducted to the small extent required for home consumption

Indigo cultivation was carried on in Muzaffarpur District in 1876–77 (the latest year for which statistics are available) at 3? factories and 38 out works, on an area of 74 719 *bighas* (the local *bigha* being 4225 square yards), at an outlay returned at £190 943 The out turn amounted to 8358 *maunds* in 1876–77 an unfavourable year for indigo

Saltpetre refining under a system of licences is an important manufacture. In 1876–77 the number of licences granted amounted to 16,486 The saltpetre refiners derive very large profits from their business, as they buy crude saltpetre at low rates (*i e* from 4s. to 6s per *maund*) from the Nunijás or makers refine it by a cheap and easy process, and sell it in Calcutta probably making a profit of more than cent per cent. Each Nunia family earns an average of about 12s a month during six months of the year but after deductions for rent and certain exactions, the earnings must be reduced to 8s a month The Nunijás, though the most industrious and honest class in the District, are the poorest of all workmen

Poppy was cultivated on 57,577 *bighás* in 1876–77 yielding a total out turn of 6367 *maunds* of opium The average out-turn per *bighá* is a little under 9 lbs, which, at the Government rate of 5s per lb, gives the cultivator a return of about £2, 5s per *bigha* The out turn varies very greatly in the Hájípur Sub division from 4 to 40 lbs per *bigha*, the average being about 12½ lbs, as against an average of about 8 lbs for the rest of the District The rates of rent for poppy lands vary from 4s to 30s per *bigha* In the poorer lands the cultivation is hardly profitable, but many cultivators grow a small patch of opium, more for the sake of the protection they receive from the Opium Department, than for the profits derived from the cultivation On the other hand, the profits on good lands are very large, sometimes as high as £5 or £6 per *bighá*

Tobacco is grown on an area estimated at 20,000 *bighas*, the average cost of cultivation being put down at £2, and the average yield at 12 *maunds* per *bigha* Tobacco is a very exhausting crop, and the land for its production requires to be changed every two or three years The scarcity of manure renders it doubtful whether it will be found practicable to introduce tobacco cultivation on a large scale in Muzaffarpur, except in the vicinity of towns, where night soil can be purchased The

crop, however, is a remunerative one, where it can be raised, the average return being £2, 16s. per *bighá*. Tobacco manufacture is largely carried on at Pusá. It was originally started by Government as an experiment, and afterwards made over to a European firm in Calcutta, who have established the manufacture on a successful footing. The Pusá tobacco manufactured into cakes after European and American methods bears a high reputation.—*See* PUSA.

Means of Communication.—The District is well provided with roads, the most important being the road from Hájípur *viâ* Muzaffarpur town and Sítámarhi to Sonbarsa on the frontier, which, though bearing three distinct names for its various sections, really forms one continuous line of 92 miles in length. Next in importance come the roads which connect Muzaffarpur town with Darbhangah and Motihári, and with Sáran *viâ* Rewághát. Altogether, 11 main roads (including those already mentioned) radiate from Muzaffarpur town to the limits of the District, and these roads are connected or crossed by numerous others.

Muzaffarpur District is intersected by the Tirhút State Railway, and by a branch connecting Muzaffarpur town with Hájípur on the Ganges in the south of the District, opposite Patná. Another branch from Muzaffarpur town to Sítámarhi in the north of the District near the Nepál boundary has been (1885) surveyed, and estimates submitted to Government for the work.

Administration.—The six main sources of District revenue in 1883-84 aggregated £172,869, of which the land revenue contributed £97,165; excise, £22,225; stamps, £33,421; registration, £2923; road cess, £13,055; and municipal taxes, £4080. Total charges of civil administration, as represented by the cost of officials and police, £25,509. In 1883-84, Muzaffarpur District contained 15,055 revenue-paying estates, owned by 75,118 separate proprietors and co-parceners; average revenue paid by each estate, £6, 9s. 1d., or by each individual shareholder, £1, 6s. The District police force (regular and municipal) numbered 483 officers and men, maintained at a cost of £7775, besides a rural police or village watch of 4578 men, maintained by the landholders and villagers at an estimated total cost of £15,286. The total number of prisoners received in the District jail during the same year was 1045, the daily average prison population being 159. The District school, which is of the first class, contained a total of 360 pupils on the 31st March 1883. Schools of a lower class numbered 2851, with 23,556 pupils. Municipalities have been established at Muzaffarpur, Hájípur, Lálganj, Sítámarhi, and Mohnar. Total municipal income in 1883-84, £4761; the average incidence of taxation being 10d. per head of the population (97,951) within municipal limits.

Charitable dispensaries are stationed at Muzaffarpur, Hájípur, Sítá-

marhi, and Sursand, which afforded medical relief in 1883 to 483 in door and 27,739 out-door patients Average annual rainfall at Muzaffarpur town, 46 47 inches

Muzaffarpur —Head-quarters Sub division of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal Area, 1218 square miles, number of towns and villages, 2043, houses, 145,191 Population (1881), males 500,906, and females 518 729, total, 1,019,635, namely, Hindus, 892,243, Muhammadans, 127,083, and Christians, 309 Density of population, 837 persons per square mile, villages per square mile, 1 68, houses per square mile, 122, persons per village, 499, persons per house, 7 02 This Sub-division comprises the three *thánas* or police circles of Muzaffarpur, Paru, and Katra In 1883 it contained 4 civil and 5 criminal courts, with a regular police force of 245 of all ranks, and a village watch or rural police aggregating 1991 men

Muzaffarpur. — Chief town and administrative head-quarters of Muzaffarpur District, Bengal situated on the right or south bank of the Little Gandak, in lat 26° 7 23 N, and long 85° 26 52″ E Population (1872) 38,223, (1881) 42,460, namely, males 22,802, and females 19,658 Classified according to religion there were in 1881—Hindus, 29,748, Muhammadans, 12,479, and 'others, 233 Area of town site, 2560 acres The income of the Muzaffarpur municipality in 1883–84 amounted to £3296, of which £2914 was derived from taxation, average incidence of taxation, is 4½d per head Municipal income (1876–77), £2908, expenditure, £3165, average incidence of taxation, 8⅜d per head of population within municipal limits.

The town is clean, and the streets in many cases broad and well kept, running principally from east to west There is a good collectorate and court house, a jail, dispensary, and several schools, some of the best of which are supported by the Behar Scientific Society and the Dharma Samáj The *bázars* are large, and markets are held daily Roads run to Hájipur, Lálganj, Rewághát, Sohansighat, Motihári, Sítamarhi, and on to Nepal, Pupri, Kamtaul, Darbhangah, Púsa, and Dalsinhsarái Considerable trade is carried on by the Little Gandak, which river, if slightly improved, would admit boats of 500 *maunds*, or about 20 tons burden, all the year round Near the court buildings is a lake or *mán*, which is simply an old bed of the river To prevent the current from cutting away the ground near the offices, an embankment was thrown across the lake towards Dáudpur The river has not been able to force its way into the lake, but it has cut very deeply into the high bank near the circuit house, and unless it changes its course, or protective works are erected, it will probably in time break through the strip of land which at present intervenes between it and the lake In 1871 the town suffered much from inundation The principal religious buildings are two large temples in the

centre of the *bázár*, dedicated one to Ráma and his wife Sítá, and the other to Siva.

Muzang.—Southern suburb of Lahore city, Punjab; lying south of Anarkalli, and containing many of the houses belonging to the civil station. Population (1881) 7301.

Myan-aung.—Township in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. To the westward, near the Arakan range, the country is mountainous, and produces valuable timber. Between the lower slopes of the hills and the Irawadi, it is low, and was formerly subject to inundation: a large tract, however, is now protected by embankments. Population (1876–77) 40,972; (1881) 44,311; villages, 152; gross revenue, £11,485. Of the gross revenue, £6798 is derived from land; £3957 from capitation tax; and £40 from the fishery revenue. Local cesses contribute £690. The area cultivated in 1881–82 was 39,142 acres, mostly under rice. In the same year the agricultural stock was as follows:—Horned cattle, 19,765; pigs, 878; goats, 130; ploughs, 5119; carts, 4198; sledges, 1349; and boats, 157. The township is divided into 6 revenue circles.

Myan-aung.—Town in Henzada District, British Burma; situated in lat. 18° 16′ 50″ N., and long. 95° 22′ 20″ E., on the right bank of the Irawadi (Irrawaddy). Population (1881) 5416, of whom 5160 are Buddhists, 191 Muhammadans, 43 Hindus, and 22 Christians. Houses, 981; revenue, £1186. Formerly the head-quarters of Henzada, then called Myan-aung District; contains court-houses and the usual public buildings, and is the seat of an Assistant Commissioner. Founded by the Talaings about 1250 A.D., and called by them Ko-dwut. Captured by the Burmese conqueror Alaung paya in 1754, who gave the town its present name of Myan-aung.

Myauk-bhet-myo.—Township in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, British Burma. Area, 1540 square miles. Population (1876) 19,520; (1881) 23,757; gross revenue, £5018. It occupies the whole of the northern portion of Sandoway from the Ma-i river to the Kwet-taung spur, and is for the most part mountainous and forest-clad. In 1875 the area under cultivation was 15,038 acres, or about 23½ square miles; in 1881 it was 17,964 acres. The chief products are rice, tobacco, cotton, sugar-cane, fibres, betel, etc. Tobacco, vegetables, and iron-wood are exported to Kyauk-pyú: small trade in cattle. The people are principally engaged in agriculture; a little salt is manufactured; and the weaving of cotton cloth for home use is carried on in every house. The only road in the township is the one across the Arakan Yomas to Taung-gup; communication is maintained by boats. In 1881 the agricultural stock comprised 12,749 horned cattle; 656 pigs; 15 goats; 5860 ploughs; 41 carts; 1 sledge; and 960 boats.

Myaung-mya.—Seaboard township in Bassein District, Irawadi

Division, British Burma Area, 1224 square miles. The coast line consists of a flat and sandy beach, bordered by grassy plains, varying in width from a quarter to half a mile From the coast as far north as the Kok ko channel the country is uninhabited during the rains at other seasons temporary fishing hamlets are established by the inhabitants of the villages farther inland The lower portion of the country, especially to the eastward is low and intersected by tidal creeks, whose banks have a deep fringe of heavy forest From the Kok ko northwards, the country gradually rises the intricacy of the creeks diminishes, and the size of the plains and permanently inhabit able spots increases. In the western and central portion of the town ship, north of La bwut ta, in 16 18 N lat., the land rises into small well wooded hills, and here small tracts of rice cultivation appear, which, farther north, in the centre of the township increase in size In the north western corner an outcrop of magnesian limestone forms low hills, which are densely wooded The extreme northern portion consists of a narrow tract of low ground which stretches up 15 miles north north east, between the Pya ma law and the Myaung mya creeks

The most important streams besides the numerous creeks in the lower portion, are the MYAUNG MYA HAUNG and the YWE, which both leave the Myaung mya at the town of that name the MYAUNG-MYA itself, and the PYA MA LAW This last is one of the mouths of the Irawadi, which it leaves at Shwe laung in the township of the same name in Thon kwa District and reaches the sea by two mouths, the Pya ma law and the Pyin tha lu. It is navigable by river steamers throughout its entire length, its mouth, where there is a formidable bar, is 4 miles wide

The township is now divided into eight revenue circles In 1876–77, the population was 34,914, in 1881, it was 45,242 The gross revenue in 1882 was £19 182

Myaung mya (formerly *Tshuep gyi*) —Town and head quarters of the Myaung mya township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma, situated in lat 16° 35 N and long 94° 51 E., on the Myaung mya creek Population (1881) 2315, number of houses, 374 It was the scene of the first rising among the Karens in 1853 Myaung mya contains a court house, police station, market, and a large pagoda with an image of Gautama Buddha Revenue (1881–82), £122

Myaung mya —Creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma, forming the northern boundary of Myaung mya township This channel leaves DAGA near OT PO, in lat. 17° 4 N, and long 95° 16 E, and runs south under various names, till, turning westward a little east of Myaung mya, it takes the name of that town It is navigable by river steamers of 300 tons burden from a short distance above MYAUNG-MYA,

in its upper course, large boats can pass at all seasons with the flood tide. Its extreme length is 15 miles; the chief branch is the Tha-ye-bon, the head-waters of the Ywe.

Myaung-mya-haung.—Creek in the Myaung-mya township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. It leaves the Tha-ye-bon a few miles from its northern mouth, and, flowing in a generally south-west direction, falls into the BASSEIN RIVER by two mouths, the northern called Po-laung-gyi, and the southern, Pin-le-ga-le. It is tidal in the dry season, and navigable by boats of light draught.

Mya-wa-di.—Portion of the Kámá township, Thayet-myo District, Irawadi Division, British Burma.

Mye-bon.—Township in Kyauk-pyú District, Arakan Division, British Burma; comprising 12 revenue circles. Population (1877) 19,607; (1881) 19,640; villages, 124. In 1881 the land revenue was £3279; capitation tax, £2201; net tax, £122; local cess, £334. Gross revenue, £5936. Area under cultivation, 22,457 acres, of which 21,910 acres were under rice, and 92 under tobacco. The agricultural stock was, in the same year—horned cattle, 9709; pigs, 786; goats, 18; ploughs, 2383; boats, 1530. The head-quarters is at Mye-bon, on an island formed by the numerous creeks which intersect the south and south-east portion of Mye-bon township.

Mye-dé. — Township in Thayet-myo District, Irawadi Division, British Burma. Lat. 18° 50′ 3″ to 19° 29′ 3″ N., and long. 95° 13′ 30″ to 95° 55′ E. Area, 922 square miles. Population (1876) 60,700; (1881) 66,192. Bounded on the north by Upper Burma; on the east by the Pegu Yoma range; on the south by Prome District; and on the west by the river Irawadi (Irrawaddy). The cultivated area in 1881–82 was 35,949 acres; gross revenue (1881), £9808. This township includes 92 registered village tracts, divided into 13 revenue circles. On the British annexation of Pegu in 1852, Mye-dé was divided into the 3 townships of Nyaung-bin-teip, Nga-taik, and Mye-dé. The first is said to have been founded by a Shan king of Ava in 1438 A.D.; and the family of the Myo-thúgyi, or revenue officer, is the oldest in the District of Thayet-myo. The total revenue under Burmese rule may be set down at £1729, besides annual 'presents' to the court at Ava. Mye-dé, the former head-quarters of the township, is now superseded by ALLAN-MYO.

Myit-ma-ka.—A stream, rising in Prome District, flows southward through Tharawadi and Hanthawadi Districts, Pegu Division, British Burma. Myit-ma-ka is the upper portion of the HLAING RIVER.

Myit-ta-ya.—River of Bassein District, Irawadi Division, British Burma; rises in the eastern slopes of the Arakan range, and, after a south-south-east course of about 30 miles, falls into the BASSEIN RIVER by two large mouths nearly 3 miles apart. These can be entered by

boats of 5000 bushels burden, and in high winds the inner passage round the island is preferred by native boatmen to the open Bassein river, there nearly three miles broad. About 4 miles inland, the northern mouth receives a large portion of the drainage from the Arakan Hills, brought down by the river Tawgyi

Mylapur (*Mailapur* or *Saint Thome*).—A suburb of the city of MADRAS The name is spelt variously—*Mayilâpuram*, or Peacock Town, *Malaipuram*, or Mount Town, *Meliapur*, *Mirapur* (by the Portuguese), and *Meelapor* in the *Tohfatal Mujahudin* It has been suggested that it is the *Malifattan* of Rashîd ud dîn but more recent inquirers favour the identification of Negapatam with *Malifattan* The great Tamil classic, the *Kural*, is said to have been written in Mylapur A legend relates that Mylapur formed the principal scene of the labours of St Thomas in India The shrine regarded as the tomb of the apostle, was visited by several travellers in the 13th and 14th centuries It attracted the Portuguese to this spot and gave the Portuguese name to it.

Mylaveram.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency —*See* MAILAVERAM

Myllim (or *Molim*) —Petty State in the Khasi Hills, Assam Population (1881) 12,351, revenue, £293 The presiding chief whose title is *Seim*, is named U Ham Mánik Principal products—rice, potatoes, millet, Indian corn, ginger, *soh phlang* (an edible root), sugar cane, and cinnamon Iron is found, the manufactures consist of baskets and iron implements

Myo haung —Township and town in Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma.—*See* MRO-HAUNG

Myouk-bhet-myo —Township in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma.—*See* MYAUK BHET MYO

Myoung mya.—Seaboard township, town, and creek in Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma —*See* MYAUNG MYA

Myoung mya houng —Creek in the Myaung mya township, Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma.—*See* MYAUNG MYA HAUNG

Mysore (or *Mahesh uru*, 'Buffalo town,' the commonly accepted derivation being from *Mahesh ásura*, the buffalo-headed demon, corrupted to *Maheshur*, and to *Mysore*, *Maisur*) —Native State in Southern India, situated between 11° 40 and 15° N lat, and between 74° 40′ and 78° 30 E long, surrounded on all sides by British territory The administrative head quarters are at BANGALORE, but MYSORE CITY is the capital The Mahárájá resides in the two cities alternately for several months in the year The cantonment of Bangalore is now an 'assigned tract' forming the civil and military station under British administration The following table gives the statistics of area and population, according to the Census of 1881 —

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF MYSORE STATE IN 1881.

(According to the Census Report.)[1]

Division.	District.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Houses.	Population.	Density of Population.
Bangalore. .	Bangalore.	2,901	2,450	108,469	669,139	231
	Kolar. . .	1,891	2,083	77,033	461,129	244
	Tumkur. .	3,420	2,205	90,822	413,183	121
	Total. .	8,212	7,728	276,021	1,543,451	188
Ashtagram.	Mysore. . .	2,980	2,137	138,012	902,566	303
	Hassan. . .	1,870	3,024	109,308	535,806	285
	Total. .	4,850	5,161	230,280	1,438,372	[illegible]
Nagar. . . .	Shimoga. .	3,797	1,073	85,305	499,728	132
	Kadur. . .	2,984	1,373	60,883	328,327	110
	Chitaldroog. .	4,871	1,420	70,751	376,310	77
	Total. .	11,652	4,709	216,939	1,204,365	103
	Grand Total.	24,723[2]	17,655	733,290	4,186,188	169

[1] The figures given in this table refer to February 1881, one month before the State was handed over to its native ruler. Since then there has been a redistribution of the territory. The old Divisions were abolished, and the former eight Districts were reorganized into six Districts in 1883, as under. The population figures given below are those of the Census of 1881, but on the new District areas.

Districts.	Population.
Bangalore.	724,228
Kolar.	498,348
Tumkur.	636,674
Mysore. . . .	1,104,087
Shimoga. . . .	582,565
Kadur.	550,215
Total. .	4,186,188

[2] Of the total area shown, 15,773¾ square miles have been surveyed by the Revenue Survey Department. The remainder, 8949¼ square miles, is the approximate area of the unsurveyed portion of the State.

Physical Aspects.—Mysore, as at present constituted—for it should be remembered that the limits of the State have varied greatly from time to time—is an undulating table-land, much broken by ranges of rocky hills and scored by deep ravines; situated in the angle where the Eastern and Western Ghâts converge into the group of the Nilgiri

Hills The general elevation of the country increases from about 2000 feet above sea level, along the northern and southern frontiers, to about 3000 feet at the central water parting which separates the basin of the Kistna (Krishna) from that of the Káveri (Cauvery) This line of water parting divides the country into two nearly equal parts a little north of the 13th degree of latitude and various chains of hills running chiefly north and south, subdivide the whole into numerous valleys widely differing in shape and size

An interesting feature of the country and one of great importance from an historical point of view is the large number of isolated rocks, called *droogs* or *drugs* (from the Sanskrit *durga* difficult of access) which are found in all parts and which often rear their heads as stupendous monoliths to the height of 4000 or 5000 feet above the level of the sea These rocks from the circumstance that their summits frequently afford a plentiful supply of good water were in former days used as hill fortresses to domineer over the adjacent plains, some of them—and in particular NANDIDRUG (4810 feet) and SAVANDRUG (4024 feet)—have been the scene of many a hard fought contest, while KABALDRUG obtained an evil fame as a State prison The eight highest peaks in Mysore are Mulaina Giri (6317 feet) Kuduri mukha (6215 feet) Bába Budan Giri (6214 feet) Kalhatti (6155 feet) Rudra Giri (5692 feet) Pushpa Giri (5626 feet) Merti Gudda (5451 feet) Woddin Gudda (5006) Four of these hills are comprised in the BABA BUDAN or Chandradrona range a magnificent cluster in the shape of a horse shoe, in the centre of which is a rich but pestiferous valley called Jagar

Mysore is naturally divided into two regions of distinct character —the hill country, called the Malnad on the west, confined to the tracts bordering or resting on the Western Ghats, and the more open country, known as the Maidan, comprising the greater part of the State, where the wide spreading valleys and plains are covered with numerous villages and populous towns The Malnád is a picturesque land of hill and forest presenting most diversified and beautiful scenery With regard to the Máidán or open country the means of water supply and the prevailing cultivation give the character to its various parts The level plains of black soil in the north, grow cotton or millets, the tracts in the south and west irrigated by channels drawn from rivers, are covered with plantations of sugar cane and fields of rice, those irrigated from tanks are studded with gardens of cocoa nut and areca palms, the high lying tracts of red soil, in the east, yield *ragi* and similar dry crops, the stony pasture-grounds, in the central portions of the country, are covered with coarse grass, and occasionally relieved by shady groves

Water System and Irrigation—The drainage of the country, with a

slight exception, finds its way to the Bay of Bengal, and is divisible into three great river systems,—that of the KISTNA (Krishna) on the north, the KAVERI (Cauvery) on the south, the two PENNERS and the PALAR on the east. The only streams flowing to the Arabian Sea are those in certain tracts in the north-west, which, uniting in the Sharavati, hurl themselves down the Gháts in the magnificent falls of Gersoppa; and some minor streams in Nagar and Manjarábád, which flow into the Gargita and the Netravati. A line drawn east from Ballálráyandrúg to Nandidrúg, and thence south to Anekal, with one from Devaráydrúg north to Pávugada, will indicate approximately the watershed separating the three main river basins. From the north of this ridge flow the TUNGA and the BHADRA, rising in the Western Gháts and uniting in the TUNGABHADRA, which, with its tributary the HAGARI or Vedavati, joins the Kistna beyond the limits of Mysore, in Srí Sáila, near Kárnúl. From the south of the line, the HEMAVATI with its affluent the Yagachi, the LOKAPAVANI, SHIMSHA, and ARKAVATI flow into the Káveri (Cauvery), which, rising in Coorg, and taking a south-easterly course through Mysore, receives also on the right bank the LAKSHMANTIRTHA, the GUNDAL, the KABBANI, and the HONNU-HOLE before quitting the territory. From the east of the line, in the immediate neighbourhood of Nandidrúg, spring three main streams, forming a system which Lassen has designated 'die Tripotamie des Dekhans,' namely, the NORTHERN PENNER (with its tributaries the CHITRAVATI and PAPAGHNI), which discharges into the sea at Nellore; the SOUTHERN PENNER, which ends its course at Cuddalore; and between them, the PALAR, whose mouth is at Sadras.

Owing to either rocky or shallow beds, none of the Mysore rivers are navigable, but timber is floated down the Tunga, the Bhadra, and the Kabbani at certain seasons. Most of the streams are fordable during the dry months, or can be crossed by rude bridges formed of logs or stones thrown across from boulder to boulder. During floods, traffic over the streams is often suspended until the water subsides. But throughout the rainy season they are generally crossed at the appointed ferries by rafts, basket boats, canoes or ferry-boats. Men also sometimes cross by supporting themselves on earthen pots. Though useless for navigation, the main streams, especially the Káveri and its tributaries, support an extensive system of irrigation by means of channels drawn from immense dams called anicuts, which retain the upper waters at a high level and permit only the overflow to pass down stream.

There are no natural lakes in Mysore; but the streams which gather from the hill-sides and fertilize the valleys are at every favourable point embanked in such a manner as to form series or chains of reservoirs, called tanks, the outflow from one at a higher level supplying the next

lower, and so on all down the course of the stream at short intervals These tanks, varying in size from small ponds to extensive lakes, are dispersed throughout the country to the total number of 37 682, and to such an extent has this principle of storing water been followed that it would now require some ingenuity to discover a site suitable for a new one The largest of these tanks is the SULEKERE 40 miles in circumference

The spring heads called *talpargis*, form an important feature of the hydrography of the north-east. They extend throughout the border regions situated east of a line drawn from Kortagiri to Hiriyur and Molkalmuru In the southern parts of this tract the springs may be tapped in the sandy soil at short distances apart and the water rises close to the surface Northward the supply is not so plentiful When the water is obtained, it is either conducted by narrow channels to the fields, or a well is constructed from which the water is raised by bullocks

Geology—The geological structure of Mysore is mainly hypogene schists, penetrated and broken up by plutonic and trappean rocks in every form of intrusion, and overlaid with occasional patches of laterite and *kankar* (calcareous deposits), and to the north of the main axial line, with black cotton soil The granitic upheavals are seen either in precipitous dome shaped monoliths, in low steppes or in undulating layers, separated by fissures and joints, so as to present almost a stratified appearance Detached cuboidal masses may be observed, not only weathering by concentric exfoliation into spheroids on a large scale, but assuming in their decay most fantastic forms The prevailing granite is composed of quartz, felspar, mica and hornblende, in varying combinations, but we also find syenite, protogine, pegmatite with its resulting kaolin, and porphyritic, hypersthenic, and amygdaloidal granites, with serpentine in eruptive masses, or in dikes and veins

Trappean rocks in the form of basalts, greenstone, felstone, and felstone porphyries, with other combinations, are to be seen similarly penetrating the gneiss, and mica and chloride schists in disrupting or intrusive masses, in low dikes, and extensive overflows The earth, resulting in the shape of an open loam, varying in colour from a light red to dark chocolate, is not only highly fertile, but overlays the altered gneiss, etc, in such a way as to ensure excellent drainage The long low dikes are numerous round Bangalore, and at the head waters of the Arkávati valley, where their intrusion is greatest, and where their decay by concentric exfoliation and lamination may be distinctly traced Solid veins, too, may be observed running through the isolated granitic *drugs* which form so striking a feature of the country, and around the bases of which fallen portions from the bare summits present singular masses of amorphous forms.

The gneissic rock about Bangalore possesses great economic value, being easily quarried from the surface, and well adapted for fine arch-work by the mere process of hammer-dressing. Certain porphyries, basalts, and granitoids yield excellent building material for ordinary work, but require chisel-dressing. The Turuvekere basalt bears a high polish. The gneiss is also frequently traversed by granitic or quartzose veins, when the component minerals are segregated and crystallized, the mica occurring in plates, the quartz in amorphous nodules or hexahedral prisms, and the felspar compacted in beds of varied colouring. Milky quartz is also segregated into large beds containing nests and seams of iron-ore and amethystine crystal. Tourmaline, beryl, garnets, schorl, epidote, actinolite, agates, ribbon-jasper, chert, and sundry ochres are procurable in various places. Iron-ore of pure quality, and occasionally magnetic, is abundant, while magnetic iron-sand overlays the country thickly about the Hágalwádi Hills.

In the Tungabhadra valley, clay slate and the softer shales are common, and in this direction long stretches of black cotton-soil are found. Beds of limestone and sandstone are to be seen at intervals in the northern part of the State, their discontinuity and dispersion being due to plutonic disturbance and subsequent denudation. Laterite is found near Bangalore in small quantities, and plentifully in Shimoga District, where it occurs in detached blocks, the prevailing colour being a reddish brown. It is used for building purposes and as road metal. *Kankar* is found in tracts penetrated by basaltic dikes, being met with in nodular masses and friable concretions in clay and gravel above the rocks, as also in irregular overlying beds. It is used for tank embankments, and also burnt into lime. In the alluvium covering a tract of country near Betmangalam in Kolár, gold is found in the form of small fragments and dust; and the auriferous strata, on being worked, are now, after many trials and losses, proving remunerative in some parts.

History.—The early history of Mysore is involved in obscurity; but light has been thrown on it by numerous inscriptions on stone and copper found throughout the State. Various places mentioned in the *Mahábhárata* and *Rámáyana* have been identified. Mysore was the kingdom of the mythical Sugriva, whose general, Hanumán, aided Rámá in his expedition against Lanka or Ceylon. At a later period, Buddhist emissaries appear to have visited the country, in the 3rd century B.C. The Jains established and long maintained their supremacy in Mysore, and have left several richly wrought temples and other memorials.

In the earliest historical times, the northern part of Mysore was held by the Kadamba dynasty, whose capital, Banawási, is mentioned by Ptolemy; they reigned with more or less splendour during fourteen

centuries, though latterly they became feudatories of the Chalukyas The Kongus or Gangas, who were contemporary with the Kadambas, governed the southern part of Mysore with Coimbatore Their capital was at first at Kárur in the latter District, and afterwards at Talkad on the Kaveri, where their dynasty was subverted by the Cholas in the 9th century The numerous inscriptions of this family indicate that the earlier sovereigns professed the Jain faith which about the 2nd century A.D, was relinquished for Brahmanism Another ancient race was that of the Pallavas, who held a portion of the eastern side of Mysore, but were overcome by the Chalukyas in the 7th century though they maintained a strong rivalry till the 10th The latter powerful dynasty came from the north of India in the 4th century, and conquered an extensive territory part of which they retained till the close of the 12th century when the Ballala chiefs overthrew them and annexed what remained of their dominions The Cholas do not appear to have ruled in Mysore for more than a century and a half Another line of kings, the Kalachurias, was equally short lived

The Hoysala Ballala kings, who professed the Jain faith were an enterprising and warlike race They brought under their dominion all the western, central, and southern parts of the State as now existing, besides portions of Coimbatore, Salem, and Dharwar They ruled till 1310, at Dwárásamudra (or *Dwarkavati Patan*), now Halebid but in that year, Malik Kafur, the general of the Emperor Ala ud din of Delhi, took the Ballála king prisoner and sacked the town Sixteen years later Dwarásamudra was entirely destroyed by another force, sent by Muhammad Tughlak (cf Briggs' *Ferishta*, vol i pp 373-413) Several temples still remain, both of the earlier Jain period and of the later kings, who reverted to Bráhmanism Among these last, the Hoysaleswara Temple ranks as one of the architectural wonders of India

After the subversion of the Hoysala Ballala dynasty, a new and powerful Hindu sovereignty arose at Vijayanagar on the Tungabhadra. This city was founded in 1336 by Hakka and Bukka, said to have been two high officials of the court of Warangal Hakka took the title of Harihara, and gave to his dynasty the name of Narsinha, between whom and the Musalman kings of the Báhmani line there was continuous rivalry, leading to frequent wars, which continued even after the dismemberment of the Báhmani kingdom In 1565, four out of the five Musalmán kings of the Deccan united against Ráma Raja, the sovereign of Vijayanagar, who was defeated and slain in the famous battle of Tálikot (1565), and his descendants, after maintaining their authority for some time at Penukonda and Chandragiri farther south, became extinct as a ruling house During the feeble rule of the last Narsinha princes at Penukonda, the petty local chiefs, generally

called *pálegárs*, asserted their independence, of whom the most important were the Wodeyar of Mysore in the south, the Náyak of Keladi in the north, the Náyak of Balam (Manjarábád) in the west, and the Bedar chiefs of Chitaldrúg and Tarikere. *Wodeyar* is a plural or honorific form of *odeya*, a Kánarese word meaning 'lord' or 'master.' In 1610, Ráj Wodeyar of Mysore, emboldened by the weakness of Tirumal, the viceroy of the decaying Narsinha dynasty, seized the fortress of Seringapatam, and thus laid the foundation of the present Mysore State.—*See also* MYSORE DISTRICT.

Ráj Wodeyar was the ninth in succession from Vijaya Ráj, who is said to have been a Yádava Kshattriya, and to have come with his brother Krishna Ráj from Dwárká in Suráshtra or Káthiáwár in 1399, in the palmy days of the Vijayanagar monarchy, and to have obtained possession of the chiefship of Hadarnáru, near Mysore. Prior to the seizure of Seringapatam by Ráj Wodeyar, it is said that a fort had been erected at Puragere, to which had been given the name of Mysòre—or, more correctly, *Mahesh-úru*, 'buffalo town,' from *Mahesh-ásura*, a buffalo-headed monster destroyed by Kálí or Chámundí, who under the latter name is the tutelary deity of the Mysore family. Although Seringapatam became the capital, the Rájás have always been known in history as the Rájás of Mysore. The capture of Seringapatam by Ráj Wodeyar was the prelude to further acquisitions by two of his successors, Cháma Ráj and Kanthi Ráj. The latter, who reigned from 1638 to 1658, was noted as an efficient administrator. During the intervals of his warlike expeditions, he introduced a tolerably successful revenue settlement, fortified his capital, and established a mint wherein *huns* or pagodas were struck in his name, which continued to be the current national money until the Muhammadan usurpation (1761).

The next ruler but one, Chikka Deva Ráj, during a long reign of thirty-four years, made his kingdom one of the most powerful in Southern India; and in his time, in 1687, the State religion reverted to Vishnuism from the worship of the *lingam* or emblem of the god Siva, which had hitherto been in vogue from the times of Krishna Ráj. At the death of Chikka Deva Ráj in 1704, the Mysore State comprised the present Districts of Mysore, the south of Kadúr, and Túmkúr, with part of Bangalore, besides Coimbatore and Salem Districts in the Madras Presidency; that is, a territory now producing a revenue of about £1,000,000. After two more princes, the direct line failed in 1731. The next Rájá, a collateral relative named Chámaráj, was imprisoned by the Dalavái (or Commander-in-Chief) and the Díwán in the pestilential fortress of Kabáldrúg, where he soon died; and a distant relative named Chikka Krishna Ráj was put on the throne in 1734.

It was during the reign of this chief that the famous Haidar Alí

usurped the *masnad*, his military prowess, with the wealth seized by him at Bednur in 1763 having made him the first personage in the State But his dynasty was as brief as it was brilliant, and its history is too well known to need recital at length What the father won, the son lost, and on the defeat and death of Tipú Sultán at the siege of Seringapatam in 1799, the English conquerors restored to the throne a representative of the ancient line in the person of Krishna Raj son of Chama Raj of Arakotara From 1799 to 1810 the Raja being a minor the administration was conducted by Purnaiya a Marathá Brahman of great ability, who ruled with a vigorous hand and filled the State coffers But when, on his retirement the young chief was invested personally with sovereign authority, he soon dissipated the wealth accumulated by his minister, and commenced a career of misgovernment which ended by the British authorities assuming in 1831 the administration in his name On his demise in 1868 he was succeeded by an adopted son, the third child of Chikka Krishna Arasu of the Bettada Kote branch of the royal house, the new sovereign being installed under the title of Cháma Rajendra Wodeyar

When the government was first taken out of the hands of Krishna Raj, two Commissioners were nominated to represent British authority This arrangement, however proved embarrassing and Colonel Morrison was appointed sole Commissioner in May 1834 He was almost immediately succeeded by Lieutenant Colonel (afterwards Sir Mark) Cubbon, who ruled the country with distinguished ability and success until 1861 The Government of India then resolved to introduce a system of administration more in accordance with that in force in British territory The Court of Directors had ordered that the mode of government should be one which could be worked by native agency but it was almost from the first, found necessary to appoint three European officers to superintend the administration of the then three great Divisions of the State In 1861, the British regulation system was more fully introduced, and the European staff was increased But on the recognition of the claims of the adopted son to succeed to the throne when he came of age arrangements were gradually made for reorganizing the administrative constitution of Mysore so as to adapt it for the future government of the Mahárájá by native agency On the 25th March 1881 the Mahárájá Cháma Rájendra Wodeyar was duly installed by the Governor of Madras, representing the Viceroy, and the Chief Commissioner handed over office to the new Diwán Excepting the disappearance of the titles of the Chief Commissioner and the General Secretary, few changes in the methods of administration then took place

Present Native Administration —The following is a general view of the administration as established in 1881 on the rendition of the country

to the Mahárájá, with more recent changes. The laws, and the main rules for the transaction of public business, in force at the time of the transfer of the governing power, remain until altered by competent authority; and any material alteration must be made by regular and formal process, with the concurrence of the Government of India. All assessments of land revenue, and all proprietary rights and tenures previously acknowledged by the State, are upheld by the new native Government. No demand on account of taxes and no appropriation of public money can be made, except by regular process and by the regularly constituted authorities. The Mahárájá's private income is kept permanently separate from the revenues of the State. The Mahárájá is aided by a Council, which deals with all the more important administrative measures, with propositions involving reference to the Government of India, and with nominations to the most responsible offices. The chief executive officer is the Díwán, who is *ex officio* head of all departments, with a secretary for each of the principal ones.

The judicial department is entirely separate from the executive. A European chief judge, with two native judges, form the chief court, exercising the functions of a High Court. There is a Civil and Sessions Judge at Mysore, and another at Shimoga; while at Bangalore, the duties of that appointment are performed by the judges of the chief court in turn. The ordinary magisterial work of each District is managed by a Deputy Commissioner, a Judicial Assistant with one or more *munsifs* for civil work, and *amildárs* (*táluk* officers) for petty cases. The police are largely under the control of the District magistrates, aided by a police assistant in each District. One of the four regiments of Native Infantry has been disbanded; while the three regiments of Silladár Horse have been formed into two. In the Survey, Settlement, and Educational Departments, native agency is being largely substituted for that of Europeans. Considerable economies have been effected in the Jail Department, and in all branches of the Public Works Department, wherever practicable, European officers have been replaced by natives.

A Representative Assembly is annually convened at Mysore at the close of the Dassara festival (corresponding with the Durga-púja of Northern India), composed of two or three of the most influential private residents in each *táluk*. Before this meeting, a statement (which takes the place of the old annual reports) is made by the Díwán of the chief administrative results of the past year, and of the principal measures proposed for the coming one. Suggestions are invited from the members and their representatives of local wants, which are disposed of at the time or registered for inquiry. The proceedings in English are translated into the vernacular so as to be understood by all.

Population.—According to the Census of 1871, the total population

of Mysore then amounted to 5,055,412 persons, dwelling in 1,012,738 houses, and in 19,630 villages or townships The total area was taken at 27,078 square miles, or 2355 more than for the Census of 1881. The area shown in 1881 is 24,723 square miles, and the population is returned at 4 186,188 persons, dwelling in 733,200 houses, and in 17,655 towns and villages The figures of 1881 yield the following averages —Persons per square mile, 169, villages per square mile, 0 71, persons per village 237, houses per square mile, 36 46, persons per house, 5 71 Classified according to sex, there were 2 085,842 males and 2,100 346 females proportion of males, 49 8 per cent Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, 767,991 boys and 770 432 girls, total children, 1,538,423, or 36 8 per cent. of the population 15 years and upwards, 1 317,851 males and 1,329,914 females total adults 2 647 765, or 63 2 per cent

The following is the religious classification adopted —Hindus, 3 956,336, or 94 5 per cent, Muhammadans, 200 484, or 4 8 per cent, Christians, 29,249, or 0 7 per cent Parsis 47 Sikhs 41, Buddhists, 9, Jew, 1, and 'others,' 21 The Christian population 17,430 of whom reside in Bangalore city and cantonment, admits of several principles of sub division Out of the total, 5188 were returned as Europeans, 3040 as Eurasians, and 21,021 as native converts According to another principle, 7847 are Protestants, and 20 510 Roman Catholics, leaving 892 unspecified

The ethnical classification affords the following results —Bráhmans, 162,652, Kshattriyas, 13,251, Maráthás, 41,239, Jains, 10,760, other Hindu castes, sub-divided into trading classes, agricultural castes, artisan castes, miscellaneous castes, wandering tribes, out castes, and non Hindu aboriginal castes and tribes, total 3,958,286 Taking the population, exclusive of the Brahman or priestly, and Kshattriya or military, and writers' castes, the Census gives the following caste classification —Among the Vaisyas or trading class, the Komatís were 25,985, and 'others,' 128,622, Satánis (servants in Vishnuite temples), 16,873, Dasáris and other mendicants, 2736, Ráchevárs (athletes and fighters), 7708, Rangárs (calico printers), 3493, Lingáyats, 470,269, Wokligas (agricultural labourers), 803,521, others of the agricultural class, 128,622, Kunchigárs (brass and copper smiths), 82,474, Kurubárs (shepherds), 291,965, Uppárs (salt-makers), 84,583, Tiglárs (market gardeners), 44,283, Gollárs (cowherds), 57,916, Idigárs (toddy drawers), 84,407, Neyigars (weavers), 167,755, Kumbhárs (potters), 31,269, Agasárs (washermen), 69,928, Gonigárs (sack-makers), 1531, Darjís (tailors), 5991, Nápits (barbers), 30,376, Ganigárs (oil pressers), 29 449, Korachárs, Lambanis, Jogis, Dambaros, and other wandering tribes, 53,782, out castes, 622,245, non Hindu aboriginal

castes and tribes, 5718, namely, Iraligars, 1229; Soligars, 1596; and Betta Kurumbas, 2893. Muhammadans were classified as follows:—Sunnís, 179,296; Shiás, 4248; Wáhábis, 516; Pindárís, 5055; Labbays, 4656; Mappilas, 385; Dairas or Mahadavis, 3777; and 'others,' 2551.

The Census divided the male population as regards occupations into six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials and members of the learned professions, 90,452; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 15,223; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 45,366; (4) agricultural class, including shepherds, 1,008,826; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 128,926; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 797,049.

Of the 21 towns and 17,634 villages in Mysore State, 11,496 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 4592 from two to five hundred; 1189 from five hundred to a thousand; 277 from one to two thousand; 50 from two to three thousand; 30 from three to five thousand; 15 from five to ten thousand; 3 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 3 more than fifty thousand. There are altogether 21 towns with more than 5000 inhabitants, showing a total urban population of 346,317 persons, or 8·3 per cent. of the population of the State. The five largest towns are—BANGALORE, population of city and cantonments (1881) 155,857; MYSORE TOWN, 60,292; SHIMOGA, 12,040; SERINGAPATAM, 11,734; and KOLAR, 11,172.

Wild Tribes.—Of the wild tribes, the Betta (Hill) Kurubas are the most numerous. They live in the woods in small communities called *hádis*, their dwellings being merely sheds made of branches of trees. Of late years they have lost much of their former shyness, and besides felling wood for the Forest Department, seek employment on coffee plantations. They still retain their love of sport, being excellent foresters, and well acquainted with the habits of wild beasts. They have no principle of caste, but each community is governed by a headman, who is generally the patriarch of the village. They are averse from cultivating the soil in the careful manner practised by most Mysore peasants, contenting themselves with sowing a little millet. Like some other wild tribes in India, they are credited with possessing magical powers, which, added to the inaccessibility of the retreats in which they have taken refuge, may have tended to preserve them from utter extermination. They are dark in colour, and short in stature, but have not so savage an appearance as some of the wilder tribes in Central India. Their long coarse hair grows to a length of 15 inches, and is drawn off the head to the back, and fastened by a

piece of string The women are rarely seen, and do not work with the men

A branch of the Kurubas, called the Jenu (Honey) Kurubas, subsist almost entirely on forest products, and occupy themselves in collecting honey in the jungle Having found out the tree where the combs are, they climb an adjoining tree, and placing a pole between the two, contrive to creep along it with a torch in their hand, and then smoke out the bees Both men and women of this sub-tribe are very unprepossessing in appearance, their features being coarse and irregular, and their hair hanging down in a dishevelled mass. The Iraligars seem to be another tribe closely resembling the Jenu Kurubas The Soligars are a secluded race, who speak Kanarese they are remarkable for their keenness of sight, and skill in tracking wild animals

In the Malnád, the aborigines are called Holiaru (from the Kanarese word *hola*, a field) and have from time immemorial been rural serfs attached to the farms of the feudal head men One branch called Mannálu (from *mannu* land, and *álu* a slave) used to be sold with the land, and were specified in the leases while another, called Honnálu (from *honnu*, gold), were transferable with or without the soil The price of a man and woman was from £4 to £5, and it was calculated that these, with a pair of bullocks, could cultivate 10 acres of land. Their master maintained them giving them 2 lbs of rice daily, with double this amount on feast-days, and an annual supply of clothes and blankets, to which were added presents on marriage The children who were born belonged to the lord of the soil. The Holiaru live in huts in the neighbourhood of the farms, and generally possess small gardens for kitchen produce They are a stout and healthy race, with broad features and flat faces, and generally carry about with them a wood knife

The Wokliga cultivators are divided into more than 50 sub-classes, they form the backbone of the population, and for skill and industry are unsurpassed by any agriculturists of India The majority of Mysore Brahmans belong to one or other of the Pancha Dravida or five southern tribes, namely—(1) Karnátaka, (2) Telinga or Andhra, (3) Dravida or Tamil, (4) Maráthá, and (5) Gujaráthí These names indicate the countries from which the various sects originally came, and they still use their native languages as their 'house tongue' in their own homes, though, of course, they speak Kánarese elsewhere

Hindu Sects —The three great sects of orthodox Hindus are called respectively—(1) Smarta, (2) Madhava, and (3) Sri Vaishnava. The Smarta hold that the creature is not separate from the Creator, but partakes of His essence, the doctrine hence being called *advaitam*, the Mádhava, on the contrary, say that the Creator and His creatures are separate, their doctrine being called *dvaitam* (dualism), whilst the third

sect combine the doctrines of the two former, holding that the creature, separate from the Creator during life, becomes absorbed into His essence after death, the doctrine being called *visishta advaitam*. Of the unorthodox sects, the most influential is that of the Lingáyats; they detest Bráhmans, and generally hold aloof from Government service, being chiefly occupied as traders, and, indeed, taking the lead in commercial pursuits in the northern part of Mysore. There are also many Jains; their high priest resides at Srávana Belgola, in the French Rocks Sub-division of Mysore District, where there is a colossal statue of Gomateshwara. The Jain temples are called Bastis, in which are to be seen the statues of their Tírthankaras.

Language.—The language spoken throughout Mysore, except in Kolár and the eastern side of Chitaldrúg, is Kánarese; which is the vernacular of 8⅓ millions of people. There are three dialects of Kánarese—(1) Purvada Hale Kannada, or the archaic Kánarese of inscriptions earlier than the end of the 7th century; (2) Hale Kannada, or old Kánarese up to the end of the 14th century, in which were written the older sacred books of the Jains and the majority of the Mysore stone inscriptions; and (3) Hosa Kannada, the existing language.

Agriculture.—The whole of Mysore State has not been surveyed by the Revenue Survey Department. The following figures include both the surveyed and unsurveyed portions of the State, and must be regarded as only approximate. The total area of Mysore State is 24,723 square miles. Of this area in 1880–81, approximately 7055 square miles were under cultivation, 5717 square miles were cultivable waste, and the remainder, 11,951 square miles, or 48 per cent. of the whole, were uncultivable waste. At the close of 1879–80 there were 3,511,828 acres of cultivable waste land remaining unappropriated, and 219,093 acres having been resigned or resumed by Government during the year 1880–81, there was a total of 3,730,921 acres available for cultivation. Of this, only 216,173 acres were taken up; thus at the close of 1880–81 there were 3,514,748 acres unutilized. The area under actual cultivation was 4,280,674 acres, namely, 554,752 acres under rice, 21,058 acres under wheat, and 3,139,560 acres under other food-grains, such as *ragí*, gram, and other cereals and pulses. Of the remaining 565,304 acres, 147,464 were occupied by oil-seeds; 135,542 by cocoa-nut and areca-nut; 159,165 by coffee; 52,178 by vegetables; 20,893 by cotton; 24,076 by sugar-cane; 12,986 by tobacco; 9619 by mulberry; 523 by pepper; 2671 by fibres; and 178 by lac. About 800 acres were planted with potatoes.

In 1884–85, out of a total area of 4,474,057 acres of cultivated land, 3,329,457 acres were occupied by *ragí* and other dry crops; 597,443 by rice; 163,877 by oil-seeds; 131,689 by cocoa-nut and areca-nut; 141,717 by coffee; 27,422 by vegetables; 21,385 by cotton;

23,993 by sugar cane, 20,378 by wheat, 6068 by tobacco, and the remainder by mulberry, pepper, fibres, and lac, in smaller proportions

Average rates of rent and produce are as follows —Rent per acre for rice (1880–81), 10s 6d per annum, for wheat, 9s 0½d per annum, for inferior grains, including *ragi*, 3s 6d for cotton, 3s. 8¼d, for oil seeds, 3s 3¾d, for fibres, 3s 2½d, for sugar-cane, 13s, for tobacco, 6s 3½d Produce per acre in 1880–81, of rice, 1170 lbs, of wheat, 831 lbs., of *ragi* and inferior grains, 1087 lbs, of cotton, 392 lbs, of oil seeds, 834 lbs, of ordinary fibres, 414 lbs., of sugar cane, 1510 lbs, of tobacco, 397 lbs The prices current of produce in 1880 were as follows per *maund* of 80 lbs —Rice, 5s 2½d, wheat, 6s 1d, cotton, £2, 3s 1½d, sugar, £1, 11s, salt, 8s 10¾d gram, from 2s to 5s. 6d, *ragi*, 1s 11½d, *dál*, 6s 7½d, beans, 3s 10¾d, tobacco, £2, 10s 4½d, molasses, 11s 3d *ghi*, £2 16s 0¾d A pair of bullocks cost from £1 to £20 a sheep, from 4s to £1, fish, from 1d to 10½d per *ser* of 2 lbs, iron, 16s per *maund* of 80 lbs., and silk, about 16s per lb The wages of labour in 1880–81 were—for unskilled labour, from 3d to 1s 3d per diem for skilled labour, from 6d to 2s per diem The hire of a cart per day varies from 1s to 2s, of a score of donkeys, from 3s to 15s. and of a boat, from 1s to 8s The agricultural stock of the State was in 1880–81 returned at 2,444,906 cows and bullocks, 1,729,088 sheep and goats, 38,130 donkeys, 29,480 pigs, 4325 horses, 14,156 ponies, 563 314 ploughs, 68,153 carts, and 118 boats.

Ragi is the staple food of the mass of the people, generally eaten in the shape of a porridge or pudding, called *hittu* This crop is entirely dependent upon rain, and therefore a scanty rainfall, at the time when rain is wanted, is productive of much distress Nor would artificial irrigation afford a remedy, inasmuch as the red soil on which *ragi* flourishes is not found in the valleys watered by channels and tanks, or only to a limited extent On the other hand, *ragi* is a very hardy plant, withstanding successfully a long drought, while the grain keeps for many years

The more valuable products of the soil, other than grain crops and oil seeds, which together occupy 90 per cent of the whole cultivated area, are the following —The areca or betel nut is produced by an elegant endogenous tree, grown in shaded and fenced gardens where a good supply of water is available, and where shelter is afforded from high winds. In 1880–81, areca nuts to the value of £169,806 were exported from the State

Although the coffee plant is said to have been introduced into Mysore by Bábá Búdan many generations back, the first successful attempt to cultivate it on a large scale was made by Mr Cannon about forty five years ago The success of Mr Cannon's experiment led to the

occupation of ground in Manjarábád *táluk* by Mr. Green in 1843. A wide field of enterprise has since been opened to European planters in Manjarábád and other western *táluks*, where the conditions of a moist temperature and an elevation of from 2500 to 4000 feet are to be procured. Natives have also generally taken to the cultivation, but do not pay the same attention to the preparation of the ground and the growth of the plant. Clearing for a plantation is a troublesome and expensive process. Constant care is needed during a whole year to produce good plants from the seedlings; and although a few berries are gathered in the fourth and fifth years, the planter can hardly expect to realize a full crop till the seventh or eighth year, when the out-turn is about 5 or 6 cwts. per acre. The produce from native plantations is probably, on an average, not one quarter of this. The berries when picked are pulped, and after fermenting for one day, to remove saccharine matter, are washed, cleaned, and dried, and put in bags to be sent to Bangalore or the western coast for curing and exportation. The number of plantations held by Europeans in 1875-76 was 301, with an area of 32,638 acres; native planters held 23,942 gardens, with an area of 80,487 acres. In 1883, the number of plantations held by Europeans was 489, with an area of 41,379 acres; native planters held 22,791 gardens, with an area of 99,893 acres. The total number of gardens was 23,280, covering an area of 141,272 acres; yielding an out-turn of 4,961,397 lbs., valued at £149,321. In 1884, the number of plantations held by Europeans was 529; native planters held 22,743 gardens.

Sugar-cane is grown throughout the State wherever means of irrigation are available, but especially about Seringapatam, near which, at PALHALLI, there was till recently a large European factory for refining jaggery. The out-turn of sugar from jaggery is calculated at 50 per cent., and of the refuse about 30 per cent. is utilized for distilling rum. The value of the jaggery and sugar made in Mysore in 1880-81 was estimated at £157,789.

Cocoa-nut palms are grown extensively in gardens. The trees begin to produce nuts when seven or eight years old. As each tree bears for sixty years, and produces annually from seventy to a hundred nuts, the cultivation is reckoned very profitable, provided that water is found tolerably near the surface. The export in 1880-81 of fresh cocoa-nuts from Mysore State was valued at £10,452, and of cocoa-nut oil at £666.

The attempts to rear cinchona have been fairly successful, there being two plantations, of which that at Kalhatti, on the Bábá Búdan Mountain, contains more than 30,000 trees, and the other, on the Biligirirangan Hill, 3000 trees. The only species which has hitherto been found suited to the climate is C. succirubra, *Pavon*; C. Calisaya, *Weddell*, and C. Condaminea, *Humb.*, having failed.

In Chitaldrug District, where black soil is commonly met with in the northern *táluks*, a good deal of cotton is grown A Government farm was established to promote the cultivation, but the results were unsatisfactory, and the enterprise was consequently stopped Tobacco of a fine quality is grown in Hassan District but has not received special attention Cardamoms are in some places propagated by cuttings of the root and elsewhere by felling trees of the primeval forests on the Western Gháts when the plant springs up spontan
This cultivation is now attracting th
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stra fruits has been greatly improved The vanilla plant, without any particular attention or care further than fertilizing the blossoms, has been found to yield freely but the difficulties in curing the beans have not been overcome

Land Tenures—The land tenures in Mysore are so far peculiar that whereas in the plain districts the *ráiyatwári* system prevails in the hill tracts the land is held in *vargs* or farms and not in separate fields In the level country the soil is classified as irrigated and unirrigated the former being called 'wet and the latter 'dry land each producing different kinds of crops Garden land is classed separately The possession of this last, or of irrigated land always carried with it a proprietary right, but it would appear that 'dry land formerly belonged to the State, which could at any time resume it for any public object without compensation The *ráyats* received *pattas*, which were yearly renewable, being rather running accounts than real leases and as the rates were often arbitrarily fixed at the pleasure of the *shánabhog* or village accountant, great discrepancies were found to exist and gross partiality was common

To remedy this capricious and complicated mode of assessment, it was determined in 1863 to introduce the system of Survey and Settlement pursued in the Bombay Presidency, according to which the survey classification and assessment are disposed of in their several branches under the supervision of one responsible head The process is not expeditious, owing to the great care and discrimination required to ensure a trustworthy classification and an equitable assessment, but as he leases hold good for thirty years and give a complete proprietary ight, a substantial boon is conferred on the cultivators The limits of he survey 'numbers' which, generally speaking, comprise as many elds or as much land as can be ploughed by a pair of bullocks, are hown by mounds of earth called *bándhs*, at the corners of each umber' and along the sides.

In 1866, an *Inám* Commission was formed for the purpose of inquiring into the rent-free holdings, the *inámdárs* receiving fresh grants, which specify the amount of quit rent where such is payable. In 1880-81, the *Inám* Commission closed its inquiries. The number of *inám* lands confirmed were 57,888, of which 57,726 were enfranchised and 162 unenfranchised; of whole villages there were 2095 confirmed; 11,302 *inám* lands were resumed for invalidity of tenure; and 4658 cases were 'struck off' as neither identifiable nor enjoyed. The total cost of the Commission to the close of 1880-81 amounted to £95,358, while the total addition to the revenue during the same period was £85,432.

In the Malnad, although for administrative purposes there are nominal villages, the agriculturists do not live in communities, but each rent payer has his own farm, and his own labourers, who were formerly serfs. The absence of any organization like that of the *Ayagár* or *Bára Baloti* (the 12 village officials), which prevailed in the plain Districts, of course threw all authority into the hands of the *pátel* or farmer, who, so long as he paid the Government demand on his farm, was practically omnipotent, except when crimes of a grave nature took place within his jurisdiction. In the wilder part of the country, the head men received from the State grants of rent-free land in recognition of their feudal status. The rural slavery which mainly upheld this system was abolished by orders of the Government of India; but it does not seem to have been of a specially oppressive kind, the *pátels*, as a rule, treating their serfs rather as menial servants than as slaves.

The Malnád farms comprise, besides rice lands and areca-nut gardens, a certain proportion of wood for timber and fuel, and grazing ground for cattle, the woods in some instances being extensive forests called *kans*, in which are grown coffee, pepper vines, and other products. Sivappa Nayak of Keladi, who ruled over the Nagar country in the middle of the 17th century, fixed the Government share of the produce at one-third, taking as the basis of his valuation the quantity of seed required to sow a definite area of land, called locally the *bijvari* (from *bija*, a seed). The total assessment, called the *shist*, seems to have been equitable; but his successors, and notably Haidar Alí, added various extra charges called *patti*, amounting to one-third more, which bore heavily on the landholder. The new settlement is rectifying this injustice.

The only other tenure of importance is land granted for coffee cultivation, on certain specified conditions as to the plantation of a fixed number of plants every year, and the payment of an 'excise' at 1 rupee (2s.) per cwt. Such grants have virtually been issued under the guarantee of the British Government, and are therefore as valid as

any other leases, provided that the conditions referred to have bee fairly complied with The payment of 'excise' has recently bee superseded by an assessment on the cultivated area

Coffee lands are now (1885) held on an acreage assessment—either a 1 rupee (2s) per acre with a guarantee for 30 years on the terms of the Survey Settlement, or on a permanent assessment of 1½ rupee (3s) per acre to those who may desire it, on the terms of the Madras Coffee Land Rules reserving to Government the claim to royalty on valuable mineral products, namely, metals and precious stones Nearly all the large planters have adopted the permanent tenure

Grass lands, merely for purposes of pasture and growth of fuel or grasses for fodder, are granted on a separate assessment of 4 annas (6d) per acre, provided they are in clearly defined compact blocks

The Famine of 1876–78 —The drought which affected all Southern India in 1876–78, fell with especial severity upon Mysore From October 1875 to October 1877, four successive monsoons failed to bring their full supply of rain The harvest of 1875 was generally below the average, and remissions of revenue were found necessary, but it was not till towards the close of 1876 that famine was recognised to be abroad in the land The crops of that year in some parts, had yielded only one eighth and even in the less stricken Districts of Hassan and Shimoga, under the Western Ghats, only one half of a fair harvest was gathered. The administration promptly opened relief works, and appealed to the assistance of private charity But here, as elsewhere, the calamity suddenly swept onward with a rush which fore sight could not anticipate, and which measures of palliation were unable to cope with Actual starvation, with its attendant train of diseases, soon became common The miserable inhabitants, losing all traditions of social cohesion, flocked into Bangalore by thousands, only to die in the streets of the cantonments On the other hand, grain was poured into Bangalore by the Madras Railway, but the means for bringing the food to the hungry mouths were inadequate

When the rains of 1877 again held off during July and August, the crowds at the relief centres increased, and the mortality became very reat It was in these circumstances, at the beginning of September, hat the Viceroy visited Bangalore and directed the adoption of a stem of relief based on that followed in the Bombay Presidency he labourers were to be concentrated on large works, and the relief ablishment was generally augmented

The suffering reached its worst in September 1877, when a total of ,000 persons throughout the State were in receipt of relief, of whom 24,000 were employed on works under professional supervision hat month, the famine deaths reported in the town of Bangalore aged about 40 a day, while double that number perished daily in

the relief camps and hospitals. In October 1877, the north-east monsoon broke with a fair rainfall, and cultivation at last became possible. The survivors returned to their villages, to commence ploughing with the few oxen that remained to them, and sow the seed supplied by English benevolence. As the year 1878 wore on, despite some alarms of a recurrence of distress in March and April, relief operations were gradually contracted; but it will take many years before Mysore recovers its normal condition of prosperity. It is estimated that one-fourth of the total population, or about a million, were swept away by starvation or disease; the mortality among cattle is returned at a quarter of a million; besides crops the value of which would have been nine and three-quarter millions sterling. The total amount expended by the State on famine relief, as returned by the Famine Commission, was about 70 *lákhs* (£700,000); besides remissions of land revenue, which amounted to 28 *lákhs* (£280,000). The invested surplus of many years, amounting to £462,000, was quickly absorbed: and a loan of £500,000 was advanced by the British Government. In addition, a sum of £155,000 was allotted to Mysore out of the Mansion-House Relief Fund.

Manufactures.—The manufactures of Mysore are not of great importance, as the people are mainly agricultural. The chief manufacture is that of iron, for which there is a foundry at Bangalore, besides petty local furnaces. The metal is found in great quantities in many parts of the State, by digging in the lower hills which intersect the country from north to south. The smelting furnaces are of a rude but effective character, and at present supply all the requirements of the cultivators. But the ore is so rich and abundant, that it seems probable that improvements in the process would be attended with profitable results. The annual produce of iron from the numerous mines of the State is estimated at 37,608 *maunds*, or 1343 tons. The manufacture of steel has not hitherto been successful, owing to the fact that the fusion is imperfect until the metal has been twice subjected to the fusing process.

Tanning is a comparatively new industry, but is rapidly growing. It is mostly carried on by Muhammadans. Paper-making has died out. The manufacture of glass bangles or bracelets has long been successfully carried on at Mattod in Chitaldrúg District. Raw silk was formerly produced in considerable quantities, especially in the neighbourhood of Bangalore. This industry, however, dwindled almost to nothing, owing to an obstinate disease amongst the silkworms. It is now said to be reviving. Among other manufactures, the red morocco leather of Harihar, the blankets of Chitaldrúg, and the carpets and jewellery of Bangalore deserve mention. The dyeing carried on with vegetable products in Bangalore will compare favourably with the aniline dyes of Europe. Cotton-spinning by the hand is almost a thing of the past, and worsted thread has to be

obtained from England A woollen factory was set up at Bangalore, and though it was worked by hand at first it is now being replaced by machinery The total estimated value of manufactures in the State was, in 1880–81, £628,165 but this estimate is merely approximate

Mines and Quarries —Iron is worked in Bangalore and the existence of gold bearing rocks has been discovered in the north west of that District Great attention has recently been given to gold prospects in Kolár, and in the present year (1886) success seems to be at last rewarding the capital and labour that have been expended on the enterprise

Commerce —The following are the chief articles of trade the figures being those of the Administration Report of the State for 1880–81 — Exports — coffee £99 403 areca or betel nut £169 806 *ragi* £115 410, rice and paddy £261 1?3 gram £88 979 cotton, £16 558, piece goods, £68 500 coarse cloth £6450 jaggery sugar £80 890, fine sugar £16 282 gold £9600 tobacco £10,167 silk, £51,000, cardamoms £16 491 pepper £1 651 betel leaves £65,864 Imports—piece goods £336 728 silver £51 609 coarse cloth, £89 359, wheat £152 372 gold £42 376 cotton £64 578, rice and paddy £168 430 areca or betel nut £32 297 *ragi* £38,452 *dál*, £25 918, pepper £26 542 tobacco £19 556 coarse sugar, £21,024, fine sugar, £9857 silk £130 268 betel leaves £159 882 The total value of the imports for the year is returned at £1 549 648, and of the exports, £1 202 866

The trade of the State is thus of a limited character and as might be expected in an agricultural country like Mysore it is chiefly in food grains and other articles of local produce Coffee cultivated in Western Mysore is largely exported to the western coast and thence shipped to the European market, where it enjoys considerable favour Bangalore is the great trade entrepôt of the whole State Local traffic is carried on mostly at the weekly markets or annual fairs (*santes*) which supply the place of shops A good deal of areca nut grown in the Bombay Presidency, passes through Mysore where it pays duty, to Walájapet and Arcot in Madras. Sandal wood, which is a State monopoly, is not shown in the above returns, as the income derived from it form- - f the revenue of the Forest Dep-
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...ays —About 55 miles of the Bangalore Branch of the South West Line of Madras Railway are within Mysore State The Mysore Government has continued, on the metre gauge, a branch line to Mysore city, a distance of 86 miles. During 1883–84 the detailed plans and estimates for a farther extension south to Nanjangad (14½ miles) were ready The Mysore State contemplates constructing a hrough line on the metre gauge from Bangalore city to the southern

£45 218, public works, £93,600, religious and charitable institutions, £27,965

Local Funds —For the maintenance of District roads and other local objects, a cess is levied of 1 anna in the rupee on the land revenue, and on certain minor collections The former cess of 1 anna in the rupee, also levied on irrigated lands for the maintenance of the tanks in each District, is now merged in the land revenue, of which one seventeenth is set apart for irrigation works The amount collected on account of local funds in 1875-76 was £51,206, and in 1883-84 £71,157, of which 24 per cent was set apart for the support of village schools

Municipalities have been established at all District head quarters The total number of municipalities in 1880-81 was 84, as against 77 the year before The total population within municipal limits was, in 1881, 503 444 The municipal committees in 1880-81 consisted of *ex officio* members and non official members who are nominated by the President of the Board and approved by the Local Government In 1880-81 there were 341 members on the various local boards, 89 of whom were *ex officio* The total municipal income in 1880-81 was £42,113, and the expenditure £35,228 The income is chiefly derived from octroi duties, and taxes on houses and shops. In 1880-81, £16,307 was derived from the former source, and £10,510 from the latter Traders paid for licences, £4271 The number of municipalities in 1883-84 was 86, total receipts, £29,885, and expenditure, £26,693

Public Works —Prior to 1856, most public works not of a technical character were executed by the civil officers, great attention being paid to tanks and to the main communications of the State The outlay from 1831 to 1856 was—on irrigation works, £325,000, on roads, £287,500, and on buildings, £60 000 Since the institution of the Public Works Department, the total outlay during twenty years, exclusive of establishment, was £1,890,925, of which £967,491 was assigned to communications £528 017 to agriculture and irrigation, and £291,995 to civil buildings Even before the time of the famine special attention had for several years been given to the restoration, on a regular system of the more important tanks, and down to 1879 a sum of £208,317 was spent for this purpose The Public Works expenditure in 1880-81 was £163,231 In addition, £155,725 was spent on the Mysore State Railway The Budget Grant for 1883-84 was £153,600, of which £95,000 was for Provincial service works, £48,500 for District works, and £10,100 for irrigation works.

Forests —In 1863-64, a Forest Conservancy Department was introduced, which has materially conduced to the preservation of valuable timber, while reserving the rights of cultivators to trees on their

extension of the Southern Maráthá Railway *viâ* Túmkúr, Tiptúr, Ajjampur, and Davangere, about 210 miles. Of this through line, 54 miles had been opened for public traffic up to the end of 1884. Thus there were (1884) in Mysore 140 miles of railway belonging to the State; while the Madras Railway, in their Bangalore branch line, had about 55 miles in the State. The 140 miles of State railway have been laid down at a cost of £635,000, or about £4500 a mile. To Bangalore, as the main centre, are brought by these lines the greater part of the coffee, areca-nut, and other products of the western and northwestern *táluks*. An excellent network of Provincial and District roads, with an aggregate length of 3029 miles, permeates the State; and great attention has been paid to the numerous passes leading through the Ghát to the low country in North and South Kánara, the principal of these lines being the Gersoppa, Kolúr, Haidargarh, and Agumbi *ghát* roads in Shimoga, the Bund or Kodekal Pass on the frontier of Kadúr and Hassan, and the Manjarábád *ghát* in the *táluk* of that name.

Revenue and Expenditure.—In 1791, the gross revenue of Mysore was returned by Tipú Sultán at 1,412,500 pagodas, or say £400,000. In 1802–03, under the management of the Díwán Purnaiya, the revenue had risen to £740,000, but it rapidly fell when the late Mahárájá took the government into his own hands. In 1833–34, the first year of British administration, the amount realized was only £550,000. A countless number of vexatious imposts have since been abolished, and personal debts of the late Rájá have been paid off to the amount of £750,000. The revenue now stands at more than a million sterling, although during the period 1870–80, famine has caused considerable fluctuations. In 1880–81, the actual amount of receipts was £1,009,324, the chief items being—land revenue, £721,334; *abkári* or excise, £93,984; *sayar* or customs, £33,088; *mohtarfa* or assessed taxes, £27,052; forests, £68,069; law, police, and justice, £10,042; stamps, £46,788. The following were the chief items of expenditure:—Civil administration, £858,500; British subsidy, £245,000; public works, £106,999; military force, £75,438; Rájá's personal expenses, £35,745; religious and charitable institutions, £27,478.

In 1883–84, the actual amount of receipts was £1,063,557, the chief items being—land revenue, £733,447; excise, £122,973; forests, £62,728; stamps, £46,508; customs, £28,342; assessed taxes, £28,144. In the same year the total expenditure amounted to £1,013,951, showing a surplus of £49,606, including £16,453, the surplus revenue of the Assigned Tract. The following were the chief items of expenditure:—Subsidy, £245,000; civil list, £100,000; interest on public debt, £49,123; military force, £73,800; administration (land revenue charges), £150,447; [illegible] justice, £41,227; police

£45,218, public works, £93,600, religious and charitable institutions, £27,965

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Forests—In 1863-64, a Forest Conservancy Department was introduced, which has materially conduced to the preservation of valuable timber, while reserving the rights of cultivators to trees on their

holdings planted by themselves or previous occupiers, sandal-wood excepted. There were in 1880-81, 643 square miles of reserved forests. In addition, great numbers of trees have been planted along roads and in villages. The revenue of the department in 1880-81 was £68,069; and of this, £52,336 was derived from the sale of sandal-wood, 1718 tons of which were collected during the year. In 1883-84 there were 898 square miles of reserved forests, and about 700 square miles of unreserved forests. The revenue of the Forest Department in 1883-84 was £37,897.

Postal Facilities.—The plan of extending postal communication, by opening village offices under the *hobli* or village schoolmasters, has been attempted with some success. There are now (1881) in the Provinces 180 offices; and a new postal line is being established to bring the coffee district of Koppa into more direct communication with Chikmagalúr, the head-quarters of Kadúr District. When this is done, the postal lines of the Province will aggregate 2477 miles in length. In 1880-81, the number of paid letters carried was 1,167,425. The annual revenue from all postal sources in 1880-81 was £5182; the expenditure was £15,965; so that the cost to revenue of the postal department was £10,782 for the year.

Justice.—The system of judicial procedure, both civil and criminal, is now assimilated to that in force in British territory. In former days, *pancháyats* were largely resorted to for the adjudication of civil cases, and great latitude was given to the officers presiding in the courts. The greater part of the civil work is now (1884) performed by *munsifs*, having jurisdiction in suits up to £100 in value, with small cause powers up to £5; and by subordinate judges, who dispose of suits between £100 and £500; all these officers being obliged to write out their decrees themselves. In appeal cases, the opportunity of appearing personally is always afforded. The number of *munsifs* in 1880 was 125, or an average of two for every *táluk* in the State. The number of civil cases decided in 1880 was 17,461, of which 53 per cent. were uncontested. The total value in dispute was £224,510. In the same year, the total number of criminal offences (great and small) was 9695; the number of persons brought to trial was 18,989, of whom 9242, or 48·7 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an offence of some sort to every 453 of the population. The number of prisoners in jail at the end of 1880 was 2126, of whom 87 were females.

The number of civil cases decided in 1883 was 14,085, with a value of £168,247, of which nearly three-fourths were uncontested. In the same year, the total number of criminal offences (great and small) was 9128; the number of persons brought to trial was 18,059, of whom 6006, or 32 per cent., were convicted, being 1 person convicted of an

offence of some sort to every 697 of the population The number of prisoners in jail at the end of 1883 was 1309, of whom 68 were females.

Prior to 1863, little attention was paid to jail discipline, the convicts being employed in gangs in the construction of roads, but all labour is now, with rare exceptions, intramural A first class prison, on the panopticon principle, was in that year erected at Bangalore, the convicts being taught various manufactures such as making carpets, tents, blankets for horses, besides articles required for jail purposes, and also printing, lithography, carpentry, etc The dry earth system for sewage has been introduced with great success, the refuse being used in the prison garden The total cost of the jails in 1880 was £19,850 The net cost of maintaining the convicts averages £6, 10s per head annually

Police —The police force consisted till a recent period of the ancient village watchmen, and of the *kandachar* peons, who were the remains of the armed militia of the country Though they had a good knowledge of the criminal classes in their several beats, they had no special training or organization In 1866, the *kandachars* were superseded in Bangalore District by a constabulary under a European officer Steps have been taken, while preserving on an improved basis the village police, to introduce a superior class of men into the regular police, by giving them better pay A police assistant in each District has the management of the local police In 1880–81 the force consisted of 510 officers and 4061 men, employed in the rural Districts and in municipal towns and cantonments The cost was £59 997, of which £52,494 was paid from the general revenue and £7503 from municipal funds These figures show 1 policeman to every 916 of the population and to every 5 4 square miles of the area

Military —Mysore pays a yearly subsidy to the British Government of £245,000 eventually to be raised to £350,000, for the maintenance of a force for the defence of its territory The existing strength of this force is—the head quarters and a battery of horse artillery, and 2 field batteries a regiment of European cavalry, 1 regiment of European infantry the head quarters and 4 companies of sappers, a regiment of Madras cavalry and 3 regiments of Madras Native Infantry,—all stationed in the civil and military station of Bangalore Before the rendition of the State, troops were stationed at French Rocks, near Seringapatam as well as at Bangalore

The local force in 1880–81 consisted of 1206 (in 1883, 1160) horsemen called *silladars*, divided into 2 regiments, and 3 regiments of foot, called *bar*, numbering 1831 in 1880–81 (1908 in 1883–84). The *silladars* have at various periods done good service In 1807 they were a strong body of 4000 men, but their efficiency gradually declined a few years ago, considerable reductions were made in their strength,

of pupils in 1880 was 42 657 Of the whole number, however, only 132 are educated up to the university standard The total outlay on education in 1880–81 was £29 939 The returns show 1 State or aided school to every 22 8 square miles, and 10 pupils to every thousand of the population Female education is also said to be growing in popularity In 1880, the number of girls under instruction was 3944 The Census of 1881 returned 64 733 boys and 3636 girls as under instruction, together with 169 965 males and 5446 females not under instruction, but able to read and write

In 1883–84 the total number of schools of all classes in Mysore was 937 State schools, 197 aided schools and 1254 private schools, total, 2388 schools, with 63 490 pupils Of the whole number of scholars, 59,662 were boys and 3828 girls These figures show 1 school to every 10 square miles, and 15 pupils to every thousand of the population

Medical Institutions —The medical institutions consist of 3 general hospitals, 17 dispensaries, with a lunatic asylum (140 inmates), and a leper hospital (34 inmates) at Bangalore Number of vaccinations, 94 010 In 1880–81, the total number of patients treated was 156,989, of whom 3515 were in patients Maternity hospitals have been opened at Mysore and Bangalore Great improvement had taken place in the registration of vital statistics of the general population The number of births registered in 1880–81 was 87 315 or 20 8 per thousand of the population The birth rate was in the proportion of 106 5 males to every 100 females The number of deaths recorded was 80,291, or 19 07 per thousand. As usual, the greatest number of deaths, two-thirds of the whole, were ascribed to fever [For further information regarding Mysore State, see the *Gazetteer of Mysore*, by Mr Lewis Rice, 2 vols (Bangalore, 1877)]

Mysore (or *Mahesh uru*, 'Buffalo town' the generally accepted derivation being from *Mahesh-ásura*, the buffalo-headed demon corrupted to *Maheshur*, and to *Maisur, Mysore*) —District forming the southernmost portion of Mysore State, included in the Ashtagrám Division, situated between 11° 6 and 12° 45 N lat, and between 75° 56 and 77° 24 E long Area, 2980 square miles, and a population, according to the Census of 1881, of 902,566 persons. Bounded on the north by Hassan and Túmkur Districts of Mysore State, east by Bangalore District of Mysore State and the Madras District of Coimbatore, south by the Madras Districts of Nílgiri and Malabar, and west by Coorg The administrative head quarters and residence of the Maharájá are at MYSORE TOWN

Physical Aspects —The District of Mysore has been described as an undulating table land, well wooded and fertile, and watered by perennial streams, which feed numerous artificial channels. There is a gradual

fall in the level of the plain from west to east, following the course of the Káveri (Cauvery); and the extreme south, along the skirts of the Nilgiri Hills, is occupied by a *tarái* of marshy and dense jungle. Lofty mountain ranges, covered with primeval forests, shut in the District on the western, the southern, and the greater part of the eastern frontier. The only break in this barrier is where the Káveri bursts through the Gháts and forms the celebrated falls of Sivasamudram. The highest range of hills is the Biligiri-rangan in the south-east, which attain a height of about 5000 feet above sea-level. The general elevation of the plateau varies from 2300 to 2800 feet. The great river of the District is the KAVERI (Cauvery), which in usefulness, in sanctity, and in picturesque features is scarcely surpassed throughout India. It rises in Coorg, and crosses the District of Mysore from west to east, flowing by the ancient capitals of Seringapátam and Talkad. At the District boundary it encircles the island of Sivasamudram, near the magnificent waterfall of that name; and finally, after forming the no less sacred island of Srirangam, it reaches the Bay of Bengal through the fertile delta of Trichinopoli and Tanjore, the two main arms being called respectively the Coleroon (Koládan) and the Káveri (Cauvery). Its chief tributaries in Mysore District are the HEMAVATI, LOKAPAVANI, and SHIMSHA on the left bank, and the LAKSHMANTIRTHA, KABBANI, and HONNU-HOLE on the right. All these streams, as well as the main rivers, are abundantly used for irrigation.

The geological formation principally consists of granite, gneiss, quartz, syenite, and hornblende. In some places these rocks are overlaid with laterite. Iron abounds in all the hills, and is extensively smelted and worked into a great variety of implements. Stones containing magnetic iron are especially valued for medicinal purposes. Gold is washed in insignificant quantities in some of the hill streams. Other mineral substances applied to a practical use are talc, asbestos, flint nodules, and potstone. The prevalent soil throughout the District is a red loam, but the more fertile 'black cotton-soil' is found in the south-east. A great belt of forest extends along the western frontier of the District for a distance of about 80 miles, varying from 2 to 6 miles in width. Besides the common forest trees, sandal-wood, teak, and blackwood are to be seen; the date-palm also is very abundant. Even the most highly cultivated tracts yield a plentiful supply of wood for fuel. There are altogether 180 square miles of forest reserves, for the most part in the Heggada Devanakot *táluk*. These forests harbour herds of wild elephants, which occasionally commit great devastations on the cultivated fields. In recent years, however, their numbers have greatly diminished, owing to the spread of agriculture; and since 1868 orders for their strict preservation have been in force. A *khedda* party, in a single day in 1874, captured a herd of 55 of these animals, including

13 tuskers. Tigers and bison are also numerous, but the ann number of deaths from wild beasts has now been reduced to a l average The other wild animals include bears, leopards *sámbhar* a spotted deer The principal winged game are pea fowl jungle fowl, ar bustard.

History —The history of Mysore District is mainly identical with th general history of the State The banks of the sacred Kaveri (Cauvery abound in legends associated with every rapid and island some of which refer back to the times of the *Mahábhárata* The earliest mention of Mysore is found on a tablet of the Buddhist monarch Asoka 245 B C but the identification is somewhat doubtful The first authentic record refers to the city of Talkad on the Káveri near the eastern portion of the District which was the capital at one time of the Kongus or Gangas line of kings, who ruled in Southern India from the 3rd to the 9th century A.D The Kongus or Gangas were succeeded by the Cholas in their turn overthrown by the Hoysala Ballála dynasty who have left many monuments and inscriptions throughout the District The chief cities at this period were Talkad Nagarapura Dorasamudra, and Somnáthapura In the 14th century the Hoysala Balláḷa line came to an end, and the Vijayanagar sovereigns became paramount throughout the South Their viceroy, known as Srí ranga rája from his residence at Seringapatam, levied tribute from the surrounding country so far as it did not fall under the dominion of semi independent feudatory chiefs

Among these feudatory chiefs the Wodeyars of Mysore gradually rose into prominence The family cannot boast of any great antiquity The first of the name is said to have arrived from Dwarka in Káthiáwár as an adventurer at the little village of Hadanaru in the 14th or 15th century, and to have won the hand of the heiress of the local pálegar by his chivalrous conduct. It was not till 1524 that the fort of Mysore was built, on the site of a village formerly named Puragere, and named *Mahesh uru* buffalo town from *Mahesh ásura* the buffalo headed monster whose destruction is the most noted exploit of the goddess Kálí The Wodeyars henceforth rapidly grew in power, until in 1610 they obtained possession of Seringapatam from the last of the Vijaya nagar viceroys whether by force or stratagem is uncertain From this event may be dated the foundation of the Hindu kingdom of Mysore, which continues to the present day

The Wodeyars appear always to have remained on good terms with the Muhammadan invaders, who about this time came down from the north The Bijápur armies under the Maráthá Shahji did not advance far as this remote corner, but when these armies were overthrown the Mughals, the Wodeyar of Mysore contrived to obtain his share the plunder In 1687 he purchased from Kásim Khán, the general

of Aurangzeb, the fort of Bangalore for the sum of £30,000; and in 1699 he obtained from the Delhi Emperor the right of sitting on an ivory throne—to this day the badge of royalty in Mysore. On the death of Chikka Deva Ráj in 1704, his dominions extended from the south of Coimbatore to the middle of Túmkúr District, and from the borders of Coorg to the Karnátik Gháts. It will be observed that these limits are much narrower than the present State of Mysore; and, moreover, the sovereign rights of the Rájá were greatly impaired by the semi-independence of his many feudatories. It is to the Musalmán usurper Haidar Alí that Mysore owed both its widest extension and the organized empire which tolerated no subjects but slaves.

From the beginning of the 18th century, the Wodeyars fell under the control of their Dalawáis or hereditary Mayors of the Palace. And this circumstance rendered it the more easy for Haidar Alí to supersède their authority, and finally to rule in his own name; while the representatives of the old Hindu dynasty were kept as State prisoners in their own palace at Seringapatam. The usurpation of Haidar Alí is generally dated from 1761. It is a matter of imperial history how, after the death of Tipú in 1799, the Marquis of Wellesley resolved to restore the Hindu dynasty in the person of a boy four years old; how, in 1831, the British assumed the direct administration of the State, and in 1881 restored the same to Native rule. In 1811, Bangalore was fixed upon as the most healthy station for the European troops, and as the head-quarters of the civil government, though Mysore still continues to be the capital of the Mahárájá, who resides in both towns at different seasons of the year.

Population.—A *khána-sumári*, or house enumeration of the people, in 1853–54, returned a total of 602,040 souls, exclusive of the *jágír* of Yelandúr. The regular Census of 1871 showed the number to be 943,187, giving an increase over the corresponding area of 52 per cent. in the interval of 18 years, if the earlier estimate can be trusted. The Census of 1881 made the following returns:—Population, 902,566, namely, males 443,179, females 459,387; density of population per square mile, 303; villages per square mile, 0·72; houses per square mile, 57·2; persons per house, 6·4. The District contained 2137 towns and villages, consisting of 138,912 occupied and 31,721 unoccupied houses. The decrease in the population is mainly due to the famine of 1876–77; during which famine, it is estimated, there had been a loss of about a million of lives in MYSORE STATE (*q.v.*). There were in 1881, under 15 years of age, 174,644 boys and 171,734 girls; total children, 346,378, or 38·4 per cent. of the District population. The adults numbered 268,535 males and 287,653 females; total, 556,188, or 61·6 of the population.

All the population figures in this article, and all averages and per-

centages calculated therefrom refer to Mysore District as constitut in February 1881, one month before the rendition of Mysore State the Maháráj́á. In 1883, however, there was a reorganization Districts, the former Districts of Chitaldrúg and Hassan bein abolished, and their territories distributed among other Districts. Th results of the change, so far as regards Mysore District, is to make up a population of 1,194,087 for the reconstituted District. In the absence of later figures, however, all statistics given in this article, except where otherwise stated, refer to the year of the last Census, 1880-81.

In respect of occupation, the Census of 1881 divided the male population into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 16,405; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging house keepers, 2178; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 7388; (4) agricultural class, including shepherds, 197,966; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 25,279; and (6) indefinite and unproductive class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 193,963.

The religious division of the people in 1881 showed—Hindus, 859,001, or 95·1 per cent.; Muhammadans, 40,916, or 4·5 per cent.; Christians, 2603, or 0·3 per cent.; Parsis, 36; and Sikhs, 10. The Hindus were further sub-divided, according to the two great sects, into worshippers of Vishnu and worshippers of Siva. In point of caste, Bráhmans numbered 33,008, chiefly belonging to the Smarta sect; the claimants to the rank of Kshattriyahood were returned at 5692; among the Vaisyas, the Komatis were 2268, and 'others' 18,275; Jains, 1519; Maráthas, 3723; Satánis (serving in Vishnuite temples), 2626; Ráchewárs (athletes and fighters), 1908. Of inferior castes, the most numerous is the Wokligas (159,097), who are agricultural labourers; 'others' of the agricultural class, 6777; Kurubas (shepherds), 89,131; Bestars (fishermen), 84,778; Uppars (salt-makers), 20,476; Gollárs (cowherds), 4216; Vaddárs (stone masons, well-sinkers, tank diggers), 8059; Kunchigárs (brass and copper smiths), 3166; Neygas (weavers), 31,672; Idigars (toddy-drawers), 6363; Agasas (washermen), 14,312; Ganigars (oil-pressers), 11,515; Kumbárs (potters), 10,056; Nápits (barbers), 6304. The Lingáyats, who have always been very influential in this part of the country, were returned at 144,523, of whom many are classified as agriculturists, though trade is the special occupation of the sect. Out-castes were returned at 154,696; wandering tribes, 1573; aboriginal non-Hindu tribes, 4355.

The Muhammadans muster strongest in Mysore *táluk*, and are almost returned as Deccani (Dakshini) Muhammadans. They are distributed by the Census into 33,060 Sunnís, 1027 Shiás, 100 Wáhábís,

2089 Pindárís, 2573 Labbays, 1646 Daira or Mahadavi; and 'other' Muhammadans, 421. Out of the total of 2603 Christians, 184 were returned as Europeans and 221 as Eurasians, leaving 2198 for native converts. According to another principle of division, there were 634 Protestants and 1969 Roman Catholics.

Mysore District contains 2137 towns and villages, with few houses of the better class, or over £50 in value. Of the total number of towns and villages, 845 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 798 from two to five hundred; 351 from five hundred to one thousand; 110 from one to two thousand; 19 from two to three thousand; 9 from three to five thousand; 3 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; and 1 more than fifty thousand. The town of MYSORE, which is described in the following article, covers an area of about 3 square miles, and contains a total population of 60,292 persons. The four following towns also each contain a population of more than 5000:—SERINGAPATAM, 11,734; MALVALLI, 5078; HUNSUR or Dod-Húnsúr, 5670; and NANJANGAD, 5202. There are altogether eleven municipalities in the District, with an aggregate municipal revenue in 1880-81 of £9643. Of the interesting sites may be mentioned TALKAD, the ancient metropolis of Southern India, now covered with blown sand that has drifted from the bed of the river Káveri (Cauvery); the ancient city of TIRKANAMBI; the old cantonments at HIRODE or FRENCH ROCKS; and the hill of CHAMUNDI, with its colossal figure of the sacred bull of Siva. The celebrated falls of the Káveri near SIVASAMUDRAM lie just beyond the Mysore boundary, within the Madras District of Coimbatore.

Agriculture.—The main cultivation of Mysore District consists of dry crops, though there are especially favoured tracts where the facility of irrigation permits rice to be grown. The great food staple is *ragí* (Eleusine corocana, *Gærtn.*), which is preferred by the labouring classes to rice, on account of its strengthening qualities. It is estimated that 4s. will purchase enough of this grain to sustain a man for one month. The straw of *ragí* furnishes, also, the best fodder for cattle. The crops, both wet and dry, are generally classed as *hain* or *kár*, according to the season; but it is not usual to take both a *hain* and a *kár* crop off the same land. *Hain* crops, both wet and dry, are sown in July and August; *kár* wet crops in September, and *kár* dry crops in April. All crops can be grown as either *hain* or *kár*, with the exception of certain sorts of rice, cotton, wheat, gram, and many vegetables, which are grown as *hain* only. Among miscellaneous crops raised only in certain localities, may be mentioned tobacco, cotton, and sugar-cane. Coffee cultivation has been attempted, but with little success. In 1883 there were 85 plantations owned by natives occupying 132 acres of land, yielding an approximate out-turn of 1400

lbs., estimated value of the yield, £50. The cultivation of mulberry also has greatly fallen off, owing to the persistent mortality among the silkworms.

Out of a total area of 2980 square miles, 1096 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 164 square miles as cultivable waste, and 1720 square miles as uncultivable waste. The following statistics are from returns made in 1880-81, the year before the rendition of the State:—Area under rice, 61,119 acres; wheat, 6796; other food grains, 568,455; oil seeds, 36,221; vegetables, 4497; cocoa-nut and areca nut, 13,947; cotton, 1732; sugar-cane, 241; and mulberry, 3241. The corresponding figures for 1884 show a considerable increase in cultivation. In that year, rice occupied (approximately) 107,015 acres; wheat, 10,373 acres; other food grains, 875,618 acres; cotton, 711 acres; coffee, 153 acres; and sugar-cane, 260 acres.

The average rent per acre for rice land in 1880-81 was 9s. 3d.; for wheat land, 5s. 4d.; for land producing inferior grains, 5s. 4d.; for land producing cotton, oil seeds, and fibres, 5s. 4d.; for sugar-cane land, 9s. 4d.; and for tobacco land, 5s. 4d. The average produce of an acre of rice land is 1393 lbs.; of wheat lands, 574 lbs.; of land producing inferior grains, 820 lbs.; of cotton lands, 984 lbs.; of oil seed lands, 820 lbs.; of sugar-cane lands, 1125 lbs.; and of tobacco lands, 840 lbs. Current prices in 1880 per *maund* of 80 lbs. were as follows:—for rice, 6s.; wheat, 4s. 10d.; cotton, £2; sugar, £1, 11s. 2½d.; salt, 9s. 10d.; gram, from 3s. 7d. to 6s. 1d.; *ragi*, 2s. 5d.; *dál*, 7s. 7d.; tobacco, £3, 7s. 4d.; unrefined sugar, 13s. 4d.; and *ghi*, the Indian substitute for butter, lard, etc., £2, 15s. 8d. A plough bullock costs £2, a sheep 7s. 3½d. Iron sells at 13s. per 80 lbs., and silk at 17s. 6d. the lb. Skilled labour costs 1s. 6d. a day, and unskilled 1s. The hire of a cart is 1s. 6d. a day, of a donkey 6d., and of a boat 2s. The agricultural stock is returned at 6488 carts, 93,587 ploughs, and 49 boats.

Irrigation is industriously practised wherever practicable, by means of artificial channels drawn off by anicuts, or dams from the large rivers. On the Káveri there are 9 of these anicuts, besides 7 on the Lakshmantírtha, and 5 on other streams. The total length of channels is 497 miles, watering an area that yields a revenue of £27,500. The total number of tanks is 1978. Owing to the fertility of the soil, manure is less necessary than in other Districts. The common cattle of Mysore are of a poor description, but there are two or three famous breeds. Foremost among these is the *amrita mahal*, which is said to have been selected by Haidar Alí for military purposes, and is still carefully maintained by the State. The characteristics of this breed are size, endurance, speed, soundness of feet, and a light colour. Two other local breeds, differing from the *amrita mahal* chiefly by the

absence of thorough-bred qualities, are known as *hallikár* and *madhugiri*. The total live stock of Mysore District (1884) is returned at 603,927 cows and bullocks, 212 horses, 3975 ponies, 7280 donkeys, 698,754 sheep and goats, and 5725 pigs. It has been observed that the jungle tribe of Kurubas are in the habit of domesticating the young of the wild hog.

Manufactures, etc.—The chief industries of Mysore District are concentrated at Mysore city, and at Ganjám, the modern quarter of Seringapatam. The articles made are cotton cloth of fair quality, *kamblis* or country blankets, coarse paper, and sugar. Cotton-weaving and the manufacture of pottery and brass-ware are carried on in most villages, to meet the local demand. The winding of raw silk is a declining industry. At HUNSUR there were formerly Government factories connected with the Commissariat Department; and at the present time leather articles (boots, knapsacks, etc.), fine blankets, and carts continue to be produced there by workmen who maintain the training they received. The tannery is now in the hands of an enterprising native. At the same place, also, there are extensive pulping works for coffee, which is sent from the Coorg plantations. PALHALLI was formerly the site of another important factory, known as the Ashtagrám Sugar Works, where the jaggery produced by the *ráyats* from sugar-cane and the date-palm was refined. This factory obtained honourable awards at several exhibitions in Europe, but it has now been abandoned.

The principal exports are food-grains, oil-seeds, betel-leaf, sugar, silk, tobacco, hides, sandal-wood, and sheep; the imports are piece-goods, hardware, salt, *ghí*, cotton, and wheat. There is a great demand for grain in Coimbatore and the Nílgiri Hills, and a considerable trade is conducted with Bangalore and Madras. In the 31 mines of the District the output of iron in 1880-81 was worth £462. Local traffic is carried on chiefly at weekly markets, and a large number of the traders are Musalmáns. The merchants residing at the town of Mysore belong for the most part to the Kunchigar caste. The chief annual fairs are held at SERINGAPATAM, GANJAM, and CHUNCHANKATTA. The total length of State roads is 178 miles, and of District roads 637 miles. About 46 miles of the Mysore State Railway passes through Mandya and Ashtragrám *táluks* to Mysore city, the present terminus of the line.

Administration.—In 1880-81, the total revenue of Mysore District amounted to £149,978. The chief item was land revenue, £100,261. By 1883, the total revenue of the District had increased to £194,355, the chief items being—land revenue, £125,029; forests, £13,108; and *abkári* or excise, £32,197. The District is divided into 14 *táluks* or fiscal divisions, with 117 *hoblis* or minor fiscal units. In 1870-71,

the total number of revenue-paying estates was 552, owned by 25,955 registered proprietors or coparceners. These figures do not include the *jagir* of YELANDUR in the south-east of the District, containing an area of 73 square miles—a very fertile tract, which was granted as an hereditary fief rent free, by the British Government to the Díwán Púrnaiya in 1807. During 1880, the average daily prison population of the District jail was 345.2, and of the *táluk* lock-ups 13.3; total 358.5, of whom 15.4 were women; showing 1 person in jail to every 2517 of the population. In the same year the District police force numbered 53 officers and 570 men, maintained at an aggregate cost of £7153. These figures show 1 policeman to every 4¼ square miles of area or to every 1449 persons of the population; the cost being £2, 8s. per square mile, and nearly 2d. per head of population.

The Mahárájá's college situated at Mysore city had in 1880–81 an average daily attendance of 32 scholars. The number of schools, Government and aided, in 1880 was 174, attended by 5947 pupils, being 1 school to every 17 square miles and 6.6 pupils to every thousand of the population. Of the 174 schools 8 are girls with 371 pupils. These figures are exclusive of the *táluk* schools and of 2 jail schools, educating 392 pupils. In 1883 there were 184 schools, with 8515 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 10,498 boys and 341 girls as under instruction, together with 29,063 males and 791 females able to read and write. In 1880–81 there were two printing presses, both in Mysore city.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Mysore is hotter than that of the neighbouring District of Bangalore, and exhibits greater extremes of temperature. The mean annual temperature is a little above 77° F. The annual rainfall, calculated over a period of 38 years, is 28.9 inches, of which the greater portion falls between August and October; May also is a rainy month. In 1881 the rainfall was returned at 27.8 inches, of which 6 inches fell in October and 5 in May. It has been observed that the tracts lying close beneath the Nílgiri Hills and the Western Gháts receive less rain than the open country.

The prevalent disease is malarious fever, which is generally amenable to treatment. In special tracts, however, such as the island of Seringapatam and the *tarái* lying beneath the Nílgiri Hills, it is complicated with enlargement of the spleen and visceral congestions. Europeans are most liable to fever during the cold months, from December to February. Both Europeans and natives enjoy the best health during the prevalence of the south-west monsoon. Outbreaks of epidemic cholera, when they occur, generally commence about the month of April. The vital statistics are far from trustworthy; but it may be mentioned that out of a total number of 14,490 deaths reported in 1880, 9636 were assigned to fever, 1058 to bowel complaints, 431 to

small-pox, and 42 to snake-bite and wild beasts. In 1880, the Mahárájá's Hospital at Mysore city was attended by 866 in-patients, of whom 106 died; the out-patients numbered 15,594. Total income of the hospital, £1237; of other dispensaries in the District, £205. [For further information regarding Mysore, see the *Gazetteer of Mysore*, by Mr. Lewis Rice, 2 vols. (Bangalore, 1877).]

Mysore.—*Táluk* in the centre of Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 394 square miles, of which 152 are cultivated. Population (1871) 126,930; (1881) 120,172, namely, 59,013 males and 61,159 females, consisting of 104,389 Hindus, 14,504 Muhammadans, 1333 Christians, 36 Pársís, and 10 Sikhs. All the Pársís, and the great majority of the Muhammadans and Christians, are found in the city of Mysore. Revenue (1883), exclusive of water rates, £9485. The country is watered by two small tributaries of the Kabbani. The principal natural feature is the Chámundi Hill, 3489 feet above sea-level. The *táluk* contains 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 284 men; *chaukídárs* or village watchmen, 264.

Mysore (or *Mahesh-úru*, 'Buffalo town,' the generally accepted derivation being from *Mahesh-ásura*, the buffalo-headed demon; corrupted to *Maheshúr*, and to *Maisúr*, *Mysore*).—Capital of Mysore State. Situated in 12° 18′ 24″ N. lat., and 76° 41′ 48″ E. long., 10 miles south by west of Seringapatam. The Census of 1871 returned the total number of inhabitants at 57,815, that of 1881 at 60,292. Of the population in 1881, 28,979 were males and 31,313 females. Classified according to religion, there were 45,669 Hindus, 13,288 Muhammadans, 1289 Christians, and 46 unspecified. The total area is about 3 square miles, spread over 3 suburbs. The municipal committee is presided over by the Deputy Commissioner, with the Town Magistrate as Vice-President. Most of the municipal revenue is derived from octroi duties and taxes on houses and shops. In 1883-84, the total municipal income amounted to £7147, of which £4526 was derived from octroi duties, and £1785 from taxes (chiefly on houses and shops). The total expenditure in the same year was £6714, of which £2403 was for police, £533 for public works, £1473 for conservancy, and £719 for collection, etc. The Bangalore-Utakamand (Ootacamund) high-road runs through the city, from which also roads diverge to Malvalli (eastward), the Wainád (westward), and by way of Yelwal (north-westward) to Coorg and Hassan District.

General Aspects, Buildings, etc.—Mysore city is situated at the foot of the Chámundi Hill, in a valley formed by two parallel ridges running north and south. The general line of drainage is towards the south, and in the rainy season the surface water runs off rapidly into a large tank, called after Deva Rájá. The fort alone drains into the Dalavái's

(or Commander-in-Chief) [illegible] miles [illegible]. The streets generally are broad and narrow except in the fort. The majority of the houses are small, and some of them are substantial buildings, two or three storeys high, with terraces. Altogether, the city has a clean and prosperous look, and [illegible] public buildings have sprung up, while the efforts of the municipal [illegible] have greatly improved the sanitation.

The fort stands in the south of the city [illegible] forming a quarter by itself. The ground-plan is quadrangular, each of the sides being about 450 yards long. The defences consist of a stone wall, ditch, and glacis, with outworks and flanking towers, but they are mean and ill planned. In the interior is the palace of the Maharaja, built since 1800 in an extravagant style of Hindu architecture and adorned inside with a few paintings executed by a European artist. The front, tawdrily painted and supported by four wooden pillars fantastically carved, comprises the *Sejje* or *Dassara Hall*, where the Maharaja shows himself to the people on great occasions seated on his throne. This throne is the principal object of interest in the palace. It is made of fig wood, overlaid with ivory, and is generally stated to have been presented to Chikka Deva Ráj in 1699 by the Muhammadan Emperor Aurangzeb. The ivory has since been covered with gold and silver plating wrought with the customary figures of Hindu mythology. To be seated on this throne constitutes the coronation ceremony in Mysore, and the State appellation of the Maharája is *Simhásan ádhipati* or 'ruler enthroned.' The only other rooms in the palace worthy of mention are the *amba vilása*, with floor of *chunam* and doors overlaid with richly carved ivory and silver, where the late Maharájá used to receive his European [illegible] ve walls of mud, which is the [illegible] by Tipu Sultán. The build[illegible] many improvements of late, while a new palace for the Mahárája has been erected at Bangalore. The remainder of the area enclosed within the fort is covered with houses, which are mostly occupied by members of the royal household.

Opposite the western gate of the fort is a lofty and handsome building known as the Jagan Mohan Mahál, which was erected by the late Mahárája for the entertainment of the European officers. The upper storey is decorated with grotesque paintings of hunting scenes. The houses of the European residents are for the most part to the east of the town. The old Residency, built by Colonel Wilks in the beginning of the present century, is now called the Lower Residency, and is used for the [illegible] Court and the Representative Assembly, as well as for the accommodation of the [illegible] guests. The present Residency, [illegible] by Sir [illegible]

guardian to the Mahárájá, is more to the south-east, but on a loftier site, which commands a splendid view of the whole city. The building now the official residence of the Díwán was originally built by the Duke of Wellington (then Colonel Wellesley) for his own occupation.

History.—The site of the town, according to local tradition, was formerly occupied by the village of Puragere. In 1524, a fort was erected by one of the earliest of the Wodeyar line, and called *Mahesh-úru*, buffalo town, from *Mahesh-ásuru*, the buffalo-headed monster slain by Chámundi or Kálí. This fort remained the capital of the Wodeyars until they obtained possession of Seringapatam in 1610. Tipú Sultán, in furtherance of his design to obliterate all traces of the Hindu Ráj, razed the town to the ground, and began to build a fortress on a neighbouring hill, to which he gave the name of Nazarábád. On his downfall in 1799, the present fort was rebuilt on the old site with the very stones that had been removed by Tipú. The late Mahárájá, who was then as an infant solemnly placed by the English on the fig-wood throne, continued to reside here until his death in 1868. His profuse expenditure stimulated the trade of the town. Since the British occupation in 1831, BANGALORE has been the seat of administration.

N

Naaf (or *Náf*).—An arm of the Bay of Bengal, forming a portion of the western boundary of Akyab District, and separating the Province of Lower Burma from Chittagong in Bengal. 'Naaf' is the Bengalí name given to the estuary, which is known to the Burmese as the Anauk-ngay. It is about 31 miles long and 3 miles broad at its mouth, shallowing considerably towards the head. Lat. 20° 45′ N., long. 92° 30′ E. The island of SHAHPURI, which protects the entrance to some extent from the monsoon, finds a place in history as the immediate *casus belli* of the first Anglo-Burmese war. In September 1823, a small British detachment, then occupying the island, was attacked by the Arakanese troops under the Rájá of Ramri, and this led to the war of 1824–25. Numerous rocks and shoals render the entrance to the Naaf estuary dangerous. Ferry-boats ply regularly between Maung-daw, in Arakan, and the Chittagong side. Off the coast lie the uninhabited St. Martin's and Oyster Islands.

Naaf (or *Anauk-ngay*, the 'Little West Country').—Township in Akyab District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma; lying between the Naaf estuary on the west, the Ma-yu Hills on the east, and touching the Bay of Bengal towards the south. The northern portion is but sparsely inhabited, and is covered with forest. The central part is

well cultivated; and the southern is a narrow, sandy tract, which forms good grazing ground for cattle. Naaf is divided into 11 revenue circles, with its head quarters at MAUNG DAW. Population (1881) 53,804; number of villages, 344. Total revenue (1881–82), £13,250, namely, land revenue £8008, capitation tax, £4737, fisheries, £70, salt, £82, and local cess, £743. Area under cultivation, 41,416 acres, of which 38,000 acres are under rice.

Nabadwip.—Town in Nadiya District Bengal.—*See* NADIYA TOWN.

Nabagangá.—River of Bengal, an offshoot of the Mátábhángá in Nadiyá District. After entering Jessor on its western boundary, the river flows, first east and then south-east, past Jhanidah, Mágura, Naháta, Naldi, and Lakshmípása, till it meets the Madhumati on the extreme east of the District. The Nabagangá has long been completely shut up at its head, and cannot now be traced beyond a swamp 6 miles from its former source which was at Dámurhuda. It is drying up year by year, and in the hot season is unnavigable. In December, however, boats of about 2 tons burthen can still pass up to Jhanidah.

Nábha.—One of the cis-Sutlej States under the political control of the Government of the Punjab, lying between 30° 17 and 30° 40 N. lat., and between 75° 50 and 76° 20 E. long. Area, 928 square miles, with 3 towns and 482 villages, number of houses, 42,019, number of families, 56,519. Total population (1881) 261,824, namely, males 145,155, and females 116,669, proportion of males, 55.4 per cent., density of population, 282 persons per square mile, persons per town or village, 539, persons per house, 4.6. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 133,571, Sikhs, 77,682, Muhammadans, 50,178, Jains, 375, and Christians, 18.

The ruling family is descended from Tiloka, the eldest son of Phul, a Sidhu Ját, who founded a village in the Nábha territory. The Rájá of Jínd (Jhínd) is descended from the same branch, and the Rájá of Patiala is descended from Ráma, second son of Phul. These three families are accordingly known as the Phulkian houses. The history of the State is of little importance until after Ranjít Singh's cis-Sutlej campaigns of 1807–08, when it appeared that the Sikh conqueror would be satisfied with nothing less than absolute supremacy over the whole country to the north of the Jumna. On this, the Rája of Nábha applied to the English for aid. He received Colonel Ochterlony on his arrival at Nábha with the utmost cordiality, and in May 1809, the State was formally taken under British protection, with the other cis-Sutlej States. The Rájá Jaswant Singh was a faithful ally of the British Government, but after his death, which

occurred in 1840, his son, Rájá Debendra Singh, at the time of the first Sikh war in 1845, sympathized with the Sikh invaders, and his conduct in regard to carriage and supplies required from him in accordance with treaty was dilatory and suspicious in the extreme. Previous to the battles of Múdki and Ferozsháh, only 32 camels and 681 *maunds* of grain were furnished, while after those actions supplies were sent in abundance, and after the final victory of Sobráon the whole resources of the Nábha State were placed at the disposal of the British Government. An official investigation was made into the conduct of the Nábha Chief, with the result that he was deposed and assigned a pension of £5000 a year. His eldest son, Bharpur Singh, was placed in power.

At the time of the Mutiny in 1857, this Chief showed distinguished loyalty, and was rewarded by grants of territory to the value of over £10,000, on the usual condition of political and military service at any time of general danger. Rájá Bharpur Singh died in 1863, and was succeeded by his brother, Bhagwán Singh, who died without issue in 1871. By the *sanad* of May 5, 1860, it was provided that, in a case of failure of male heirs to any one of the three Phulkián houses, a successor should be chosen from among the descendants of Phul, by the two other chiefs and the representative of the British Government. Accordingly Hira Singh, the present Rájá, a *jágirdár* of Jind, but of the same family as the late ruler, was then selected as his successor. He is a Sikh of the Sidhu Ját tribe, and was born about 1843.

The supposed gross revenue of Nábha State in 1883 was £65,000; principal products—sugar, cereals, cotton, and tobacco. The estimated military force, including police, consists of 12 field and 10 other guns, 50 artillerymen, 560 cavalry, and 1250 infantry. A *nazarána* is payable to the British Government on the succession of collaterals to the Chiefship, and the Chief is bound to execute justice and promote the welfare of his subjects; to prevent *sati*, slavery, and female infanticide; to co-operate with the British Government against an enemy; to furnish supplies to troops; and to grant, free of expense, land required for railroads and imperial lines of road. On the other hand, he is guaranteed by the Government in full and unreserved possession of his territory; and he has also powers of life and death over his subjects. In the succession to the Chiefship the rule of primogeniture holds. The Rájá of Nábha is entitled to a salute of 11 guns.

Nábha.—Chief town and capital of Nábha State, Punjab, and residence of the Rájá. Population (1881) 17,116, namely, Hindus, 8351; Muhammadans, 6090; Sikhs, 2526; Jains, 147; and Christians, 2. Number of houses, 3246. Nábha town is the only place of any importance in the State.

Nabiganj.—Village in Mainpuri District, North Western Provinces, on the Grand Trunk Road, 24 miles east of Mainpuri town Lat 27° 11' 50" N, long 79° 25' 25" E Population (1881) 1049, namely, Hindus 916, and Muhammadans 133 Police outpost, *sarái* (native inn).

Nabiganj—Village and police station in the south-east of Sylhet District, Assam, on the Bárak branch of the Surmá river Exports to Bengal of rice, *sítalpáti* mats, and oil seeds

Nabinagar—Town in Sítápur District, Oudh situated 3 miles north west of Láharpur town Population (1881) 2524 Head quarters of the *tálukdár* of Katesar, whose residence is the only masonry building in the village Founded about two centuries ago by Nabí Khan, son of Nawab Sanjar Khan of Mahabad Captured fifty or sixty years afterwards by Gaur Rájputs who have held it ever since

Nabisar.—Town in the Umarkot *táluk* of the Thar and Parkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency situated in lat 25° 4' N, and long 69° 41' E, 20 miles south of Umarkot and connected by road with Nawakot, Juda, Daraih Samára Harpar Mitti, and Chelar Head-quarters of a *tappádár* Contains a police *thána*, Government school, *dharmsála*, and post office Population (1881) under 2000, chiefly engaged in agriculture, cattle-breeding and an export trade in *ghí* Manufactures of weaving and dyeing Local and transit trade in cotton, cocoa nuts, grain, camels, cattle, hides, sugar, tobacco, wool, and metals

Nabog Nál (*Nayagni*).—Pass in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India, over the range of mountains bounding the Kashmir valley on the east. Lat 33° 43' N, long 75° 34' E. (Thornton) Elevation of crest above sea level, 12,000 feet.

Nábpur (*Lábhpur*)—Trading village in Birbhúm District, Bengal, recently transferred from Bardwan

Nachangáon.—Ancient town in Wardhá *tahsíl*, Wardha District, Central Provinces, situated in lat. 20° 42' N, and long 78° 22' E, 2 miles south of Pulgaon railway station and 21 miles from Wardha town. Population (1881) 3615, chiefly agriculturists. Hindus number 3035, Muhammadans, 286 Jains, 111, and followers of aboriginal religions, 183 The *sarái* (native inn), with its strong stone walls and gateway, resembles a fort, and was once successfully held by the inhabitants against the Pindáris It contains a well, a carved stone on which records that the building was constructed four centuries ago by Bádsháh Lár Every Thursday a market takes place in the square in the centre of the town; and on the 4th of Aswin Vadhya (end of September) a yearly fair is held in the temple of Puránik Náchangáon has a good town school, and is a police outpost.

Nachiarkovil (also called *Srivilliputúr*).—Town in the Srivilliputúr *táluk* of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 9° 30′ 25″ N., long. 77° 40′ E. Population (1881) 1245; number of houses, 286. There is a fine pagoda here.

Nádanghát.—Trading village in the Kálná (Culna) Sub-division of Bardwán District, Bengal.

Nádaun.—Town in Kángra District, Punjab, situated in lat. 31° 46′ N., and long. 79° 19′ E., on the left bank of the Beas (Biás), 20 miles south-east of Kángra town. Head-quarters of the *jágír* of the late Rájá Sir Jodhbir Chand, who was recently succeeded by his son Amar Chand. Population (1868) 1855. Not separately returned in the Census of 1881. Once a favourite residence of Rájá Sansar Chand, who built himself a palace at Amtar, on the river bank, one mile from the town, where he held his court during the summer. Handsome temple and covered well, *jágírdár's* police station, post-office, school-house. Manufacture of soap and of ornamental bamboo pipe-stems.

Nadigáon.—Town in Datia State, Baghelkhand Agency, Central India. Population (1881) 5475, namely, Hindus, 5071, and Muhammadans, 404.

Nadiyá (*Nuddea; Nabadwíp*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 22° 52′ 33″ and 24° 11′ N. lat., and between 88° 11′ and 89° 24′ 41″ E. long. Area, 3404 square miles. Population, according to the Census of 1881, 2,017,847 souls. Nadiyá District forms the northern portion of the Presidency Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Rájsháhí; on the east by Pabná and Jessor; on the south by the Twenty-four Parganás; on the west by Birbhúm, Bardwán, and Húglí; and on the north-west by Murshidábád. The boundary lines are formed principally by rivers—the Padmá (at present the main stream of the Ganges), separating Nadiyá from Pabná and Rájsháhí; the Jalangí, marking the line of division with Murshidábád; and the Bhágírathí, forming the western boundary of the District, although, owing to changes in the course of the last-named river, a strip of land belonging to Nadiyá, and comprising the town of Nadiyá and a few adjacent villages, now lies on the farther bank of the river. The Kabadak forms the south-eastern boundary, separating Nadiyá from Jessor. The District takes its name from the town of NADIYA or Nabadwip; but the administrative head-quarters and chief town is KRISHNAGAR, on the Jalangí.

Physical Aspects.—Nadiyá is emphatically a District of great rivers. Situated at the head of the Gangetic delta, its alluvial surface, though still liable to periodical inundation, has been raised by ancient deposits of silt sufficiently high to be permanent dry land. As opposed to the swamps of the Sundarbans farther seaward, its soil is agriculturally

classed as 'high land,' bearing cold weather crops as well as rice. The rivers have now ceased their work of landmaking, and are in their turn beginning to silt up. Along the whole north-eastern boundary flows the wide stream of the Padma, which is here the main channel of the GANGES, and all the numerous waterways of the District are offshoots of that great river. The BHAGIRATHI on the eastern border, and the JALANGI and the MATABHANGA meandering through the centre of the District, are the chief of these offshoots, and are called distinctively the 'Nadiyá Rivers.' But the whole surface of the country is interlaced with a network of minor streams, communicating with one another by side channels. The Jalangí flows past the civil station of Krishnagar, and falls into the Bhágírathí opposite the old town of Nadiyá. Its *chief offshoot is the* BHAIRAB. The Mátábhángá after throwing off the PANGASI, the KUMAR, and the KABADAK, bifurcates near Krishnaganj, into the CHURNI and the ICHHAMATI, and thereafter loses its own name.

All of these rivers are navigable in the rainy season for boats of the largest burthen, but during the rest of the year they dwindle down to shallow streams, with dangerous sandbanks and bars. In former times, 'the Nadiya Rivers' afforded the regular means of communication between the upper valley of the Ganges and the seaboard, and the keeping open of their channels still forms one of the most important duties of Government. The elaborate measures adapted for this object will be found fully described in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol. ii. pp. 19-32). Tolls are levied at Jangipur, Hánskhálí, and Swarupganj, to the amount of about £20,000 a year, and a considerable proportion of this revenue is expended on repairs, etc. by the engineering staff. But though much of the trade of the District still comes down to Calcutta by this route during the height of the rainy season, the lines of the East Indian and Eastern Bengal Railways, and also the main stream of the Ganges and the Sundarbans route, now carry by far the larger portion of the traffic. In 1883-84, the number of boats [illegible] on the 'Nadiyá Rivers' was returned at 65,813, of a burden of [illegible] tons, and carrying cargo to the value of £2,896,191. The [illegible] amounted to £20,090, and the expenditure incurred in [illegible] rivers open, in establishment and maintenance, was £12[illegible]

Besides the larger rivers mentioned above, Nadiyá [illegible] a large number of minor channels (*khals*), and [illegible] Reclamations of river or marsh lands have [illegible] Nadiyá District on any extensive or systematic [illegible] are largely utilized for the cultivation of [illegible] of rice, or as reed and cane producing [illegible]

River traffic, consisting chiefly of [illegible] largely carried on at the [illegible]

Káliganj and Nadiyá, the latter of which, although the ancient capital of the District, is now of less importance as regards trade than the former. (2) On the Húglí—Sántipur and Chagdah, the latter also a station on the Eastern Bengal Railway. (3) On the Jalangí—Kárimpur, Chápra, Krishnagar, and Swarúpganj. (4) On the Mátábhángá—Munshiganj, Krishnaganj, and Dámurhuda. (5) On the Churní—Hánskhálí and Ránághát, the latter also a railway station. (6) On the Ichhámatí—Nonáganj, Bángáon, and Gopálnagar. (7) On the Pangásí or Kumár—Alamdángá, also a railway station. (8) On the Padmá—Kushtiá, also a railway station.

Leopards and wild hog are plentiful in the District, with an occasional tiger; snipe and wild duck are numerous in the swamps. Snakes abound; the number of deaths from snake-bite being about five hundred per annum, besides about fifty other deaths annually from wild animals. The river fisheries form an important item in the wealth of the District, and there is hardly a single town or large village without a number of fisher-families. Fishing as an occupation is carried on upon a large scale in the Padmá near Kushtiá, whence an almost daily exportation of *hilsá* and other fish takes place by rail to Calcutta, commencing at the end of the rainy season, and lasting till the end of the cold season.

History.—The family of the Nadiyá Rájás is one of great antiquity and sanctity. They trace descent in a direct line from Bhattanáráyan, the chief of the five Bráhmans imported from Kanauj by Adisur, King of Bengal. As, moreover, the family has figured somewhat conspicuously in history, their annals are more interesting than usual. The most celebrated of the line was Mahárájá Krishna Chandra, who came to the *gadi* in 1728, and is described as the Mæcenas of his time—a munificent patron of letters, whose delight it was to entertain and converse with distinguished *pandits*, and who lost no opportunity of bestowing gifts of money and land upon men of learning and piety. So famous was his bounty that there is a Bengalí proverb still current, that he who does not possess a gift from Krishna Chandra cannot be a genuine Bráhman. At the time when Siráj-ud-daulá was in arms against us, Krishna Chandra took the part of the English; and in recognition of his services, Lord Clive conferred on him the title of Rájendra Bahádur, and presented him with 12 guns used at Plassey, which are still to be seen in the palace.

The successors of Krishna Chandra inherited, as a rule, his love of letters, and men of piety and learning have always been received with favour at the Nadiyá Court; so that the town and District have gradually acquired great fame as the home of philosophers and *pandits*. The town is also regarded as peculiarly sacred, being the birthplace of Chaitanya, the great Vaishnav reformer, in whose honour a festival

attended by four or five thousand followers, and lasting twelve days, is held every January or February But it is not only on account of the fame and sanctity of its ancient capital that the District of Nadiyá is interesting, it possesses historical attractions alike for natives and English. Here was the capital of Lakshman Sen, the last Hindu king of Bengal, and here was—for it no longer remains—the battle field of Plassey, where, in 1757, Clive defeated the Muhammadan Nawáb The waters of the Bhágírathí have swept away the actual scene of the battle, and only a solitary tree remains to mark the spot where Clive's famous Mango-Grove once stood

In 1860, Nadiyá District was the principal scene of the indigo riots which occasioned so much excitement throughout Lower Bengal Soon after the first European planters established themselves in the District, a feeling of jealousy arose among the large native landholders, who found their influence suffering in consequence of the presence of the new-comers They accordingly endeavoured to raise in the minds of the cultivators an ill feeling against the planters, and against the strange crop. Constant quarrels followed, and the planters, failing to get redress from the courts, had recourse to fighting the native land holders with bands of club-men They also began to purchase, or to obtain sub-tenures of the lands adjoining their factories so that they might be as much as possible independent of unfriendly *zamíndárs* The latter, however, took every occasion to create a feeling of dissatisfaction among the indigo cultivators, and not without success. Unfortunately, too, a number of circumstances combined to intensify the bitterness thus engendered Crops had, for some years previous to 1860, been poor, prices were low, the *ráyats* were in a state of chronic indebted ness, and owing to an increase which had taken place in the value of other agricultural produce, the cultivators saw that it would have paid them better to grow oil seeds and cereals than indigo Collisions became common, and such was the excited state of the peasantry, that a spark was all that was required to set the indigo districts in a blaze The crisis was brought about by some ill-disposed persons starting a rumour that the Government had declared itself against indigo planting The District was for a time at the mercy of the cultivators, and those *ráyats* who had lands sown with indigo in terms of their contracts with the factories, were seized by the mob and beaten The Bengal Government succeeded in quieting the disturbance, and a Commission was appointed to inquire into the relations between the planters and the cultivators Indigo cultivation in Nadiyá received at this time a blow from which it has never altogether recovered.

Population.—Owing to numerous changes which have taken place in the area of the District jurisdiction, the results of early attempts made

to enumerate the population of Nadiyá would, even if they could be considered accurate, be of no value at the present day. The first trustworthy Census was taken in 1872; and according to that enumeration, the population, on the area of the District as at present constituted, consisted of 1,812,795 persons, inhabiting 352,017 houses and 3691 villages, the average density of the population being 530 per square mile. The last enumeration in 1881 disclosed a total population in Nadiyá District of 2,017,847, showing an increase of 205,052, or 11·31 per cent., in nine years. This increase is the largest returned for any District in the Presidency Division; and the Collector is of opinion that it represents merely the natural increase of births over deaths, aided by a contingent of pilgrims who were enumerated in the District on their way to or from a religious fair at Nadiyá town. The District, however, suffered severely from malarious fever in 1880 and 1881, and it has been estimated that the deaths from fever alone during the eight months preceding the Census of 1881, amounted to 80,000, or nearly 4 per cent. of the population. The Census Commissioner, therefore, thinks that the increase is more apparent than real, and is probably due to the fact that the enumeration of 1872 was not so well taken in Nadiyá District as had previously been believed.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3404 square miles, with 11 towns and 3689 villages; number of houses, 378,032, of which 360,686 are occupied and 17,346 unoccupied. Total population, 2,017,847, namely, males 985,245, and females 1,032,602; proportion of males, 48·8 per cent. The preponderance of females is due to the fact that a considerable number of males belonging to the District are employed in Calcutta, only visiting their homes at intervals. Average density of population, 592·8 persons per square mile; number of towns or villages per square mile, 1·09; persons per town or village, 545; houses per square mile, 111; inmates per house, 5·6. Classified according to sex and age—children under 15 years, males 420,836, and females 390,392; total children, 811,228, or 43·6 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 564,409, and females 642,210; total adults, 1,206,619, or 56·4 per cent.

Religion. — Classified according to religion, Hindus numbered 864,773, or 42·8 per cent.; Muhammanans, 1,146,603, or 56·8 per cent.; Christians, 6440; Brahmos, 28; and 'others,' 3.

Hindu high castes number 106,721, namely, Bráhmans, 59,894; Rájputs, 6047; and Káyasths, 40,780. The lower castes of Hindus include the following—Kaibartta, the most numerous caste in the District, forming the bulk of the Hindu agricultural castes, 126,063 in number; Gwálá (cowherds and milkmen), 93,382; Nápit, 23,234;

Madak, 19 747, Lohár, 19 241, Kumbhár, 19,177, Jaliya, 19 052, Sadgop, 18,174, Baniyá, 17,706, Kalu, 16,179, Telí, 16,156, Jugí, 15,775, Mál, 14,284, Kápálí, 13 308, Sunrí, 11,796, Dhobí, 10,495, Barhai, 10 446, Tántí, 7807, Málí, 6898, Harí, 6415, and Sonár, 5918 The aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes, who are all returned as Hindus by religion, include—Chamárs, 61,058, Chandáls, 43 780, Bagdí, 42 946, Koch, 15 335, Bhuiyá, 703 Bhumíj 124, Santál, 29, and other aborigines, 14 350 Caste rejecting Hindus number 21,384, of whom 21,330 are returned as Vaishnavs.

Historically, the Vaishnavs are merely worshippers of Vishnu, who agree in recognising Chaitanya, the great Vaishnav reformer of the sixteenth century, as their spiritual founder But many of them upon entering the sect renounce their family and friends, and form a community which is now generally recognised as a distinct caste. Starting from a basis of religious brotherhood and perfect equality, they have developed distinctions and class barriers among themselves, almost as stringent as those among the general Hindu community which they have quitted The town of Sántipur, in the Ránághát Sub-division, is held sacred by them as the residence of the descendants of Adwaitya, one of the two first disciples of Chaitanya. The Vaishnavs derive their recruits mainly from the lower ranks of Hindu society The sect has degenerated from its former high standard of faith and morals, and holds a very low place in popular estimation A large proportion of them live by begging, and many of the females by prostitution

An interesting sect of Hindus has its home in Nadiya District, namely, the Kartábhajás. The founder of the sect was a labourer named Rám Smaran Pál, a Sadgop by birth, who lived in the village of Ghoshpárá, about 3 miles from the present railway station of Kánchrápárá Here the members of the sect hold their gatherings, assembling, in October and November, to the number of forty or fifty thousand, to pay homage to their spiritual head, or *kartá* An account of the tenets of this sect will be found in the *Statistical Account of Bengal* (vol ii pp 53-55)

The Muhammadans of Nadiyá District exceed the Hindus in number, being returned at 1,146,603, or 56 8 per cent. of the District population Their social status is not high, and they are mostly cultivators A few are petty landed proprietors or respectable merchants and traders, but the Hindus are generally better off than the corresponding class of Muhammadans. The existence of a large Musalmán population in Nadiyá is accounted for by wholesale conversions at a period anterior to the Mughal Emperors, during the Afghán supremacy, and also to the fact that the District was the highway between the great Mughal capitals of Murshidábád and Dacca.

The only form of sectarianism which the Muhammadan religion has developed in Nadiyá, is a rather powerful Faráizi or Wáhábí puritan community. These are not now a disloyal body, and are not returned as a separate Muhammadan sect in the Census. Half a century ago, the case was very different. The fanatic leader, Titu Miyán, found in Nadiyá in 1831 a sufficient body of disaffected Faráizi husbandmen, to lead him to set up the standard of revolt, and for a short time to defy the British Government.

The Christian community in 1881 numbered 6440, comprising 69 Europeans, 67 Eurasians, and 6304 native converts. By sect the Christian population is returned as follows:—Church of England, 3444; Protestants, 1084; Episcopalians, 15; Roman Catholics, 1202; Baptists, 324; Church of Scotland, 30; other denominations and unspecified, 341. These figures do not exactly agree with those obtained from other sources, as the Church Missionary Society claims 6128 native converts belonging to its Missions at Krishnagar town and out-stations. There is also a Roman Catholic Mission at Krishnagar established in 1856, with a nunnery attached to it, concerning which no statistics are available, but which is believed to have a following of about five hundred converts. The majority of the Christians earn their living as husbandmen, and a few as constables, servants, and vernacular teachers, or as preachers in connection with the Mission. The staff of the Church Mission Society in 1881 consisted of 3 European and 27 native preachers, 61 native Christian and 33 non-Christian teachers. The Mission maintains a theological and training school at Krishnagar, with 25 pupils in 1881, besides 45 excellent boys' schools attended by 2057 pupils, and 19 girls' schools with 502 pupils. The Church of England Zanána Mission Society also maintains 4 girls' schools, with 149 pupils in 1881.

Town and Rural Population.—Nadiyá District contains a considerable urban population. The following eight towns are municipalities containing upwards of five thousand inhabitants in 1881:—KRISHNAGAR, the civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District, population 27,477; SANTIPUR, 29,687; NADIYA or Nabadwip, 14,105; KUSHTIA, 9717; CHAGDAH, 8989; RANAGHAT, 8683; KUMARKHALI, 6041; and MIHRPUR, 5731. Besides the foregoing, there are two other municipal towns, containing less than five thousand inhabitants, namely, BIRNAGAR, 4302; and JAGULI, 1985. These ten towns contain a total urban population of 119,840 souls, or 5·9 per cent. of the total District population, leaving 1,898,007 as forming the number of inhabitants in the rural villages. It is a curious circumstance regarding the town population, that whereas the Muhammadans form the majority of the population as a whole, they are invariably in a very considerable minority in the towns. Thus, while the Muhammadans comprise 56·8

per cent. of the general population, in the eight largest towns mentioned above they only form 2·8 5 per cent.

Of the 3700 towns and villages in the District, 847 are returned as containing less than two hundred inhabitants, 1506 from two to five hundred, 958 from five hundred to a thousand, 325 from one to two thousand, 48 from two to three thousand, 8 from three to five thousand, 5 from five to ten thousand, and 3 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six classes —(1) Professional and official class, 19,244, (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging house keepers, etc., 14,616, (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 33,121, (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 371,162, (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 103 699, (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 443,403 The general condition of the people has steadily improved of late years, as regards clothing, living, and other comforts.

Krishnagar, which is the administrative head-quarters and chief town of the District, is situated on the Jalangi river. A Government College was established here in 1846 The town is noted for the manufacture of excellent coloured clay figures. Nadiya, the ancient capital of the District, was formerly situated on the east bank of the Bhagirathi, but, owing to changes of the river-course, it now lies on the west bank of the stream. It has always been celebrated for the sanctity and learning of its *pandits* Reference will be made further on to the famous *tols* or indigenous Sanskrit schools of Nadiya. The battle field of PLASSEY was situated within this District, but the floods of the Bhágirathi have washed away the scene of that memorable engagement.

Agriculture—The staple crop of Nadiyá, as of most other Districts in Bengal, is rice, of which there are four crops—namely, (1) the *aus* or autumn crop, reaped in August and September; (2) the *áman* or winter crop, reaped in November, (3) *boro* or spring rice, harvested in March or April, and (4) *jáli*, the late autumn crop, cut in October or November Both the *áman* and the *boro* rice require transplantation. Among the other cereal and green crops are wheat, barley, oil-seeds, peas, gram, chillies, etc. The fibres grown in Nadiya are hemp, flax, cotton, and jute. This last is not grown to any great extent, and the produce is inferior in quality to that of the eastern Districts of Bengal, the average out turn of the fibre per acre is from 12 to 15 cwts., and the gross value is estimated at about £7, 10s. per acre. Sugar-cane, indigo, tobacco, turmeric, mulberry, and *pán* are among the other special crops

Indigo is the chief export staple of the District; there are two

crops, one sown in April or May and reaped in August or September, and the other sown in October and reaped in July. The finest dye is obtained from the spring sowings, which also cover the largest area. Though rice covers by far the larger portion of the cultivated land, second or cold-weather crops of pulses, oil-seeds and wheat, grown on *áus* land, are more common in Nadiyá than in any other District of Eastern Bengal. As a matter of fact, enough rice is not grown in the District to satisfy the local demand, which is met by importation from the south. In some parts, especially in the Sub-division of Chuádángá, the cultivation of chillies or long-pepper forms an important feature in the rural industry, as the peasant relies upon this special crop to pay the rent of his other fields.

The out-turn of rice per acre varies, according to the kind of land, from 4½ cwts. to 13 cwts., valued at from 12s. to £1, 16s. The extent of cultivable spare land in the District is very small. Irrigation is only practised in the event of a deficiency in the rainfall, and is effected by means of small watercourses, the cost being estimated at about 4s. 6d. an acre. Manure, consisting of cow-dung or oil-cake, is used for lands not adjacent to rivers, nor watered by them.

The rent of rice land ranges from 3s. to 7s. 6d. an acre; the rent of other kinds of land varies in different parts of the District, and according to the crops produced. Rents of all kinds have risen greatly since the Permanent Settlement in 1793, being now in many parts of the District double what they then were, and everywhere 30 per cent. higher. A well-to-do husbandman can afford to spend from £1, 10s. to £1, 12s. a month on the comfortable living of an average-sized household. Small cultivators are generally in debt. About five-eighths of the husbandmen in Nadiyá District hold their lands with a right of occupancy, but almost all of them are liable to enhancement of rent. No class of small proprietors exists who own, occupy, and cultivate their hereditary lands without either a superior landlord above, or a sub-tenant or labourer under them. There is a tendency in the District towards the growth of a distinct class of day-labourers, neither possessing nor renting land. These men, termed *krishans*, when employed in agriculture, are paid sometimes in money and sometimes in land, but do not receive any share of the crops. Women are seldom employed in agricultural labour, but children are engaged to look after cattle.

Wages have doubled during the last twenty years; coolies and agricultural day-labourers at present earn from 4½d. to 6d. a day. The price of the best cleaned rice is 13s. 8d. a cwt., and of the common quality, 5s. a cwt. A large proportion of the cultivable area of Nadiyá is held on *utbandi* tenures,—that is to say, without leases and for a single season only. The general custom is for the husbandman to get verbal permission to cultivate a certain amount of land in a particular

place, at a rate agreed upon While the crop is still on the ground, the land is measured and the rent assessed on it The extent of land remaining in the hands of superior landlords is said to be less than half that sublet to intermediate holders

Natural Calamities.—Blights occur every year in Nadiyá, attacking particular crops, but not on any extensive scale Floods are common, and, after what has been said above of the rivers of the District, it will be readily understood that they cause much damage The most severe flood in recent times occurred in 1871, when the Bhágírathí rose and fell three times, and the other rivers twice Fortunately the rising of the waters was so slow that there was very little loss of human life, but the number of cattle which died was estimated at 200,000 head, and from a half to two-thirds of the rice crop was lost.

Nadiyá suffered severely in the great famine of 1866 There was a serious drought in the District in 1865, and at the end of October of that year the Collector reported that prospects were very gloomy, the price of *âus* rice having already risen from 4s 1d a cwt. in the previous year to 8s The harvesting of the *aman* or winter crop brought a slight temporary relief, but in the spring of 1866 great distress again prevailed, and from April to October of that year Government and private relief were necessary During that period, twenty four principal centres of relief were at one time or another in operation, in addition to sixteen minor depots at which food was distributed The aggregate number of persons who received gratuitous relief was 601,123, and the aggregate number employed on relief works was 337,059 The total cost of relief during the famine, including half the amount spent on relief works, was £5948, of which Government paid £4850

Manufactures, Trade, etc—The manufacture of indigo dye under European supervision, to which reference has already been made, still remains the chief industry of the District The out turn of indigo in 1882–83 amounted to 2536 *maunds* Cotton weaving is everywhere on the decline, especially at the town of Santipur, where in the beginning of this century the commercial agent of the Company used to purchase muslin to the annual value of £150,000 Sántipur muslin is still exported to a small extent Sugar refining by European methods has proved unsuccessful, but several refineries in native hands exist at Sántipur, to which the raw material is brought from the neighbouring District of Jessor Other special industries are the making of brass ware, particularly at Nadiyá town and Mihrpur, and the moulding of clay figures at Krishnagar

The District of Nadiyá is very favourably situated for trade On the north and west it is bounded by large rivers, while the numerous streams which intersect it all become navigable for a considerable

for which a balance-sheet is available, was £121,119; in 1850-51, it had risen to £139,755; and in 1870-71, to £178,379. In 1882-83 the six main items of Government revenue aggregated £169,132, made up as follows:—Land revenue, £107,032; excise, £11,708; stamps, £34,569; registration, £2764; road cess, £6871; municipal taxes, £6188. The expenditure has increased in a still greater ratio than the revenue. In 1809, the net expenditure on civil administration was £17,917; in 1850, it had risen (exclusive of police expenditure) to £29,762; in 1870, it had further increased to £58,410, also excluding police. In 1882-83 the total cost of the District officials and police amounted to £34,360. While the Government net revenue in 1870 was one-third more than it was in 1809, the net expenditure increased more than threefold in the same period. Sub-division of property has gone on rapidly under British rule. In 1790 the number of estates in the District was 261, held by [illegible]05 proprietors, paying a total land tax of £135,993; the average payment from each estate being £521, and from each proprietor, £663. In 1883-84 the total number of estates was 2806, held by 10,704 proprietors; average payment from each estate, £37, 9s. 4½d., and from each proprietor, £8, 10s. 3d.

Protection to person and property has steadily increased. In 1793 there was only 1 civil court and 1 covenanted English officer in Nadiyá; in 1800 there were 39 courts and 2 covenanted officers; and in 1883 the number of magisterial courts was 26, and of revenue and civil courts, 18, with 4 covenanted officers. For administrative and police purposes, the District is divided into six Sub-divisions and thirty police circles (*thánás*), as follows:—(1) Krishnagar or head-quarters Sub-division, comprising the six *thánás* of Krishnagar, Káliganj, Lakshipara, Chaprá, Krishnaganj, and Hánskhálí; (2) Ránághát Sub-division, comprising the four *thánás* of Ránághát, Santipur, Chágdah, and Haringhátá; (3) Bángáon (Bongong) Sub-division, comprising the five *thánás* of Bángáon, Maheshpur, Ganapota, Sarsha, and Gáighata; (4) Kushtiá Sub-division, comprising the six *thánás* of Kushtiá, Naupárá, Daulatpur, Bhadulia, Kumárkhálí, and Bhaluka; (5) Mihrpur Sub-division, comprising the four *thánás* of Mihrpur, Karimpur, Gangni, and Tehatta; and (6) Ch[illegible] the five *thánás* of Chuád[illegible] Jábunnagar. The regular [illegible] s and men, including 262 employed in municipal or town duties, maintained at a total cost of £11,219. There is also a rural police or village watch numbering 3494 men, maintained by the landholders and villagers or by rent-free grants of service (*chákrán*) lands, at an estimated cost of £16,247. The total strength of the police of all classes and ranks was, therefore, 4189, or 1 man to every 481 of the population, maintained at a total estimated cost of £27,466, equal to a charge of £8, 1s. 4d. per square mile of

District area, or 3¼d. per head of the population. There are 5 jails and lock-ups in the District; the average daily jail population in 1883 was 203, or 1 criminal always in jail to every 9940 of the population. The average annual cost of maintenance per prisoner was £6, 9s.

Education has made rapid progress. In 1856-57 there were only 19 Government and aided schools in the District, attended by 1865 pupils. In 1871-72, just prior to the introduction of Sir George Campbell's reforms, which had the effect of including village schools within the State system of education, the number of schools was 253, with 9120 pupils. By 1883 the number of inspected schools had further risen to about 750, and the number of pupils to over 20,000, showing 1 school to every 4·54 square miles, and 10 pupils to every thousand of the population. These figures exclude the uninspected village schools, and the Church Mission Society's and Zanána Mission schools referred to on a previous page. The Census Report of 1881 returned 26,443 boys and 1046 girls as under instruction, besides 54,472 males and 1726 females able to read and write, but not under instruction. The Government College at Krishnagar was attended in 1883-84 by a daily average of 53 pupils; the total expenditure was £2343; the average cost of each pupil was £44, 4s. The number of candidates from this college who presented themselves for the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University was 14, of whom 8 passed. For the B.A. degree, 4 passed in the third division out of 6 candidates examined.

The ten municipalities already named had in 1883-84 a gross municipal income of £7553, the expenditure being £6732; average rate of municipal taxation, 1s. 1¼d. per head of population.

Medical Aspects.—The average monthly and annual rainfall at Krishnagar town, for a period of twenty years ending 1881, is returned as follows:—January, 0·50 inch; February, 1·16 inches; March, 1·09 inches; April, 2·69 inches; May, 6·82 inches; June, 10·19 inches; July, 10·49 inches; August, 11·58 inches; September, 7·77 inches; October, 4·60 inches; November, 0·38 inch; and December, 0·16 inch. Total annual average, 57·43 inches. In 1882, the total rainfall was 46·93 inches, or 10·50 inches below the average. No thermometrical returns are available, but the average annual mean temperature is about 77° F. Being a low-lying plain dotted over with many swamps, Nadiyá suffers much from endemic fever. A very severe outbreak of epidemic fever occurred in 1864-66. Krishnagar and the neighbouring villages suffered very severely. Another and a more intense outbreak of epidemic fever caused no less than 66,187 deaths in 1880, and 74,822 in 1881. Besides remittent and intermittent fevers, small-pox, diarrhœa, dysentery, and cholera are prevalent in Nadiyá. Cattle suffer from ulceration of the hoof, which, though sometimes epidemic, is not generally fatal, and

from throat disease of a serious type There are 8 charitable dispensaries in the District, which in 1882 afforded relief to 294 in door and 18,755 out-door patients. The total number of registered deaths in Nadiya District in 1882 was 79,459, equal to a rate of 39 37 per thousand of the population [For further information regarding Nadiya, see *The Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W W Hunter, vol ii pp 1-165 (London, Trubner & Co, 1875), *Report on the Nadiyá Rivers*, by Captain J Lang (1847-48), the *Bengal Census Reports* for 1872 and 1881, and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government]

Nadiyá.—*Sadr* or head quarters Sub division of Nadiyá District, Bengal, comprising the six police circles (*thánás*) of Krishnagar, Kaliganj, Nakshipárá, Chapra, Krishnaganj and Hánskhálí Area (inclusive of Krishnagar, the head quarters town of the District), 701 square miles, with 2 towns and 544 villages, and 70,576 houses Population (1872) 334,076, (1881) 374 973, showing an increase of 40,897, or 12 24 per cent in nine years Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 205,298, Muhammadans, 167,378, Christians, 2295, and others' 2 Number of persons per square mile, 535, towns or villages per square mile, 78, persons per town or village, 687, houses per square mile, 107, inmates per house, 5 3, proportion of males in total population, 48 5 per cent. In 1883, this Sub division contained, including the District head quarters courts, 5 civil and revenue and 10 magisterial courts, with a regular police force of 265 men, and a village watch numbering 813

Nadiyá (or *Nabadwip*)—Ancient capital of Nadiya District, Bengal, and the residence of Lakshman Sen, the last independent Hindu king of Bengal. Situated in lat. 23° 24′ 55″ N, and long 88° 25′ 3″ E., on the west bank of the Bhagírathí Area, 1472 acres Population (1881) 14,105, namely, 13,716 Hindus, 384 Muhammadans, and 5 Christians Municipal income (1876-77), £328, (1883-84), £442, of which £363 was derived from taxation, incidence of taxation, 6¼d per head of population within municipal limits

According to local legend, the town was founded in 1063 by Lakshman Sen, son of Ballál Sen, King of Bengal He is said to have been induced to change the site of his capital from Gaur by the superior sanctity of the Bhágírathí at this spot, but no doubt he was really pushed onwards by the growing power of the Muhammadans, who took Nadiyá and finally overthrew the native Hindu dynasty under Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khilji in 1203 Nadiyá has long been famous for its sanctity and learning Here, towards the end of the 15th century, was born the great reformer Chaitanya, in whose honour a festival, attended by some 4000 or 5000 Vaishnavs, is held in the month of

Mágh (January or February) every year. The famous *tols* or Sanskrit schools have been referred to in the article on NADIYA DISTRICT (*vide supra*). In the historical section of the same article will be found some account of the Rájás of Nadiyá, whose descendant now resides at Krishnagar.

Nadol (or *Nadolai*).—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána. The seat of an important branch of the Chauhán clan of Ajmere from a very early period; and with the surrounding district, of which it was the capital, for centuries an object of contention between the States of Maiwár (Udaipur) and Márwár. Ráo Lakha of Nadol was one of the Rájput princes who unsuccessfully opposed Mahmúd of Ghazni in his famous expedition to Somnáth. The fortress, or rather its remains, stand on the declivity of a low ridge, to the west of the town, with square towers of an ancient form, and built of a curious conglomerate of granite and gneiss, of which the rock on which it stands is composed. Nadol was once the capital of the province of Godwár, and is now known chiefly for its architectural remains. Of these, Tod (*Annals of Rájásthán*, vol. i. p. 598; second edition, Madras, 1873) says:—

'It is impossible to do full justice to the architectural remains, which are well worthy of the pencil. Here everything shows that the Jain faith was once predominant, and that their arts, like their religion, were of a character quite distinct from those of Siva. The temple of Mahávíra, the last of their twenty-four apostles, is a very fine piece of architecture. Its vaulted roof is a perfect model of the most ancient style of dome in the East, probably invented anterior to the Roman. The principle is no doubt the same as the first substitute of the arch, and is that which marked the genius of Cæsar in his bridge over the Rhone, and which appears over every mountain torrent of the ancient Helvetii, from whom he may have borrowed it. The principle is that of a horizontal instead of a radiating pressure. At Nadol, the stones are placed by a gradual projection one over the other, the apex being closed by a circular key-stone. The angles of all these projections being rounded off, the spectator looking up can only describe the vault as a series of gradually diminishing amulets or rings converging to the apex. The effect is very pleasing, though it furnishes a strong argument that the Hindus first became acquainted with the perfect arch through their conquerors. The *torun* in front of the altar of Mahávíra is exquisitely sculptured, as well as several statues of marble, discovered about one hundred and fifty years ago in the bed of the river, when it changed its course. It is not unlikely that they were buried during Mahmúd's invasion. But the most singular structure of Nadol is a reservoir, called the *channa baoli*, from the cost of it having been paid by the returns of a single grain of pulse (*channa*). The excavation is immense; the descent is by a flight of grey granite steps, and the sides are built up from the same

materials by piling blocks upon blocks of enormous magnitude, without the least cement' No statistics are available as to population

Náf (or *Anauk ngay*) — An arm of the Bay of Bengal, also a township in Akyab District —*See* NAAF

Nágá Hills —British District forming the south easterly corner of the Province of Assam It lies between 25° 13' and 26° 32' N lat, and between 93° 7' and 94° 13' E long, being a mountainous border land between the settled District of Nowgong in the Brahmaputra valley and the semi independent State of Manipur The approximate area is returned at 6400 square miles The population is variously estimated at from 94,380 to 120,000 souls The administrative head quarters are at the station of Kohima

Physical Aspects —The District forms a wild expanse of forest, mountain, and stream, which has up to the present date been only imperfectly explored. The valleys as well as the hills are covered with dense jungle, and dotted with small lakes of deep water and shallow marshes, which all contribute to engender a very virulent type of malarious fever It is estimated that virgin forest covers an area of about 2800 square miles A considerable tract, called the Námbar Forest, has recently been brought under the conservancy rules of the Forest Department, but the greater portion is still a pathless waste, the secure home of large game The jungle products collected by the wild tribes comprise beeswax, a variety of cinnamon, several kinds of dyes, and various fibres which are utilized in weaving The mineral wealth has not yet been fully ascertained Coal is known to exist in several localities on the Rengma Hills, and limestone is to be obtained along the banks of the Námbar and Jamuna rivers Chalk and slate have also been found It is rumoured that silver exists in the hills, but the Nagás themselves are indifferent to the value of any of the precious metals, or of jewels Hot springs have been met with in many places The wild animals include the elephant, rhinoceros, buffalo, wild ox or *gáyal*, tiger, leopard, and many kinds of deer Large fish of good flavour abound in the hill streams

The chief rivers are the DAYANG, DHANESWARI or Dhansiri, and JAMUNA, which all become navigable during the rainy season for small boats Each of these has many hill streams for tributaries The surface of the country has not sufficient inclination to discharge the entire local rainfall, which stagnates in a chain of marshes at the close of the rainy season The principal hills are the RENGMA and BAREL ranges The Rengmá range, situated in the west of the District on the right bank of the Dhaneswari river, attains an elevation of from 2000 to 3000 feet It is covered with forest and underwood, and the slope is very steep The Bárel Mountains run up from the frontier of Cachar, crossing the District in a north-easterly direction Their greatest height is at the

interest as containing the watershed which separates the valley of Assam from the mountain glens of *Upper Burma*

But despite all precautions the Nagas have illustrated their traditional character as successful jungle fighters in more than one determined attack upon our survey parties. In 1873 a party under Captain Samuells and Lieutenant Holcombe explored the eastern hills which extend beyond the Dayang river towards the Patkái range The *Nagás* were found to be somewhat suspicious and sulky but it was hoped that after more intimate intercourse they would become convinced of our pacific intentions No show of actual hostility was manifested but in the following cold season including the beginning of 1875 the scene changed The Nágás turned out in force the party was surrounded and Lieutenant Holcombe and his followers to the number of eighty were treacherously massacred In the western hills bordering on Manipur similar symptoms of ill will were manifested The survey party under Captain Butler who had done more than any other single man to open out this country was attacked on the night of the 4th January 1875 by the people of Wokha under which village his camp had been formed The attack was made in great force but was promptly met by a counter attack and the village was fired and occupied The ascertained loss of the Nágas was 18 killed and all their property was captured on our side 4 men were slightly wounded Again, on the 10th January Captain Butler was attacked in open day by from 400 to 500 Nágás who were easily driven off with heavy loss Later in the same year however Captain Butler was cut off and killed

In 1877, the Angámí Nagas of Mezuma raided upon a friendly Naga village in North Cachar killing 6 and wounding 2 persons, the cause of the attack being a feud of thirty years standing As the tribe refused to give up the raiders, an expedition was sent against it, and the offending village was burned These events led to a review of the position which the British occupied in the hills and in 1878 it was determined by Colonel Keatinge then Commissioner of Assam, with the approval of the Government of India to abandon Samaguting, a low and unhealthy site on the extreme edge of the Angami country *and to fix the future head-quarters of the Political Officer at* [illegible] in the middle of the group of powerful Angamí villages [illegible] specially necessary to control.

This change was carried out in the cold weather [illegible] indications of further trouble soon presented themselves [illegible] 1879 Mr Damant, the Deputy Commissioner [illegible] escort of 21 sepoys and 50 armed po[illegible] and strongly fortified village of Khonoma [illegible] village, Mr Damant was at once [illegible]

into the escort, who turned and fled, followed by the Nágás. Of the escort, 35 were killed and 19 wounded. The Nágás then proceeded to besiege the garrison in the Kohima stockade, who were reduced to great straits for want of food and water. After a blockade of twelve days, the siege was raised by the opportune arrival of a force of Manipuri troops, with a small body of sepoys under Colonel Johnstone, Political Agent of Manipur.

A regular military campaign against the Nágás ensued, which lasted till March 1880. Khonoma was taken on the 22nd November 1879, but the defenders retreated to a very strong position above the village on a spur of Jápvo, where they maintained themselves till the end of the campaign. Jotsoma was captured on the 27th November, and every one of the 13 villages which had entered into the coalition against us was either occupied or destroyed. The most notable event of the war, however, was the daring raid made in January 1880, by a party of Khonoma men from the fort above the village, at the time beleaguered by our troops, upon the tea-garden of Báladhan in Cachar, more than 80 miles distant, where they killed the Manager, Mr. Blyth, and 16 coolies, plundered what they could, and burned everything in the place.

On the 27th March, the fort above Khonoma submitted, and the expedition was at an end. Fines in grain, cash, and labour were imposed upon those villages which took part against us; the Nágás had to surrender the firearms they were known to possess, and in some instances the removal of a village from a fortified and inaccessible crest to a site below was directed. Khonoma was razed to the ground, and its site occupied by an outpost. From all villages, an agreement was taken to pay revenue in the shape of 1 *maund* of rice and 1 rupee per house, to provide a certain amount of labour annually for State purposes, and to appoint a head-man who should be responsible for good order and for carrying out the wishes of Government.

After the close of this, the twelfth and last, expedition, the whole policy to be adopted in dealing with the Nágás was submitted by the Chief Commissioner to the Government of India, who in February 1881 finally decided that our position at Kohima should be retained, a regiment permanently stationed in the hills, and the District administered as British territory. Since that date, the history of the Nágá Hills has been one of the progressive establishment of peace and good order, and the quiet submission of the Nágás to our rule.

The Sub-division of Wokhá was first opened in 1875. The station is situated in the country of the Lhotá Nágás, who are separated from the Angámís by the Rengmás and Semás. The village of Wokhá had on several occasions attacked survey parties sent into the hills, and it was determined to occupy the site to secure our position there. The

Lhotás have no connection with the Angámis, who do not pass through their country in visiting the plains

The boundaries of the Nagá Hills District, as now settled, were finally gazetted in July 1882

Population, etc—Neither the regular Census of 1872 nor that of 1881 was extended to this District. An estimate in 1855 gave the total population of all the Nágá tribes at about 100,000 At the time of the Survey in 1871–72, an enumeration of the inhabitants dwelling under British authority, conducted by Captain Butler ascertained a total of 68,918, but no details are available, and the enumeration is admitted to be very inaccurate and incomplete The Census of 1881 returned the civil and military population of Kohima village and station at 1380, namely, 1351 males and 29 females Hindus numbered 1259, Muhammadans, 94, Christians, 25 and others 2 For the hill tracts generally, the estimated number of villages was returned at 231 and the population of Nága tribes roughly put down at 93 000 For the purposes of revenue assessment, the number of houses in most of the Nagá villages were counted in 1882, and the following estimates arrived at of the population—Angamí Nágás 35 000 Lhotá Nágás 34,000 Sema Nágás, 8000, Kachhá Nágas, 9000 and Rengma Nágás, 8000 total estimated Nágá population 94,000 In addition to the Nagas, it is estimated that there are—Assamese, 1000, Aitaniyas, 400 Cacharís 3500, Kukis 2600, and Mikirs, 8800 total 16 300 or an estimated grand total of 110,300 for the whole District The Míkír tribe are remarkable for the extent to which they herd together, it is no uncommon circumstance to find three or even four families, in no way related to each other, residing under the same roof

The Nagas—Under the generic name of Naga is included a large number of virtually independent tribes, who are in sole occupation of the hill country from the northern boundary of Cachar to the banks of the Dihing river in the extreme east of the Province of Assam The explanation of the term generally accepted is that which derives it from the Bengali *nankta*, meaning 'naked,' but some authorities are inclined to connect it with *naga*, the Sanskrit for 'snake,' an origin which suggests an association with the well known aboriginal traditions of Central India. The various tribes of Nágás are all apparently sprung from a common stock of the Indo Chinese family of nations, and all live much in the same primitive state, yet they now speak different dialects, which are so distinct from each other that villages lying scarcely a day's journey apart can only communicate through an interpreter using a foreign tongue The British District is inhabited by five tribes known as the Angámi, Rengmá, Kachha, Lhota, and Sema Nágás

The Rengmás are a small and inoffensive clan, occupying the hill

range of the same name. At the present day they can scarcely be distinguished from the Mikirs among whom they live, and they carry on a river traffic by means of the Jamuná river with Bengalí traders. There are also 9 Rengmá villages situated due north of Kohima. These villages form a strong and united community, and for a long period prevented the warlike Angámí tribe from raiding on the timid Lhotás. Tradition states that the Rengmá Nágás originally occupied the higher ranges east of the Dhaneswarí, but were forced to fly to their present homes in consequence of intestine feuds and the attacks of other and more powerful Nágá tribes. Their villages are small, and with a few exceptions undefended, although from their being situated in the midst of heavy forest jungle and dense underwood, without roads, they are very difficult of access. Besides rice, a considerable quantity of cotton is grown in the hills, which is bartered for salt, bells, beads, hoes, etc., to Bengalí hawkers from Nowgong. The Rengmás acknowledge a plurality of gods, to whom they make sacrifices of cows, pigs, and fowls. Marriage is a civil contract, and merely needs the consent of the girl and her parents. The only ceremony consists of a feast given by the bridegroom to the whole village.

The Angámí and kindred Kachha clan of Nágás dwell respectively in the south-east and south-west of the District. They are an athletic and by no means bad-looking race, with brown complexion, flat noses, and high cheek-bones. They are brave and warlike, but also treacherous and vindictive. Their dress consists of a dark blue or black kilt, ornamented with rows of cowrie shells, and a thick cloth of home manufacture thrown over the shoulders. As ear-ornaments, they wear tusks of the wild boar; but the most coveted decoration of a warrior is a neck-collar made of goat's hair dyed red, and fringed with the long scalps of slain enemies. Strings of various coloured beads ornament their necks in front, a conch shell being suspended behind. Above the elbow are worn armlets either of ivory or plaited cane, prettily worked in red or yellow. Between the calf and the knee are bound pieces of finely cut cane dyed black, the calves being encased in leggings of cane similar to the armlets. The hair is generally cut square in front, and tied into a knot behind, with a plume of eagle or toucan feathers. The women are short in stature, stout, and extremely plain-featured. They have to perform all the drudgery of the house, to work in the fields, hew wood and draw water, besides weaving the clothing required for the family.

The national weapons are a spear, a shield, and a *dáo* or bill-hook. This last also serves as a sole implement of agriculture, and for all domestic purposes. The shaft of the spear is twined with plaited cane and coloured hair. The shield is 5 feet long by 18 inches broad, the framework consisting of split bamboos, covered in front with a bear or

tiger skin, and protected behind by a board When proceeding on a foray, they invariably carry a large stock of sharp-pointed bamboos a few inches in length, intended to be stuck in the ground to retard the pursuit of an enemy Of recent years, many have succeeded in obtaining guns or muskets, and the possession of firearms is the supreme desire of every Nágá Although the importation of arms and ammunition is prohibited, the Nagas manage to obtain supplies of native manufactured guns from Manipur

The Angámí villages are invariably built on the summits of the hills, and are strongly fortified with stone walls, stockades and ditches The approaches, also, are formed by a species of covered way, so constructed as to admit but one person at a time, and guarded by massive doors, and sentries The number of houses in a village varies from 20 to 1000 They are built with long gable roofs, and eaves almost touching the ground In dimensions they are sometimes 50 feet long by 30 feet broad, and are generally divided into only two rooms

The religious ideas of the Nágás are of a very vague order Some say they believe that if they have led good and worthy lives in this world, their spirits will fly away and become stars but that those who have lived evilly are compelled after death to pass through seven separate existences as spirits, and are finally transformed into bees Others, again, seem to have no idea whatever of a future state, and when questioned on the subject reply, 'Our bodies rot in the grave, and there is an end of it, who knows more?' In common with the aborigines of Central India, they are extremely superstitious in the matter of omens, and all their ceremonies and sacrifices are directed, not towards a benevolent supreme power, but to appease the wrath of numerous malignant spirits and demons Their mode of taking an oath is to place a spear head or the muzzle of a gun between their teeth, and to imprecate on themselves destruction by that weapon if they are not speaking the truth They inter their dead in a special burying ground, and over the grave of a chief erect a stone tomb 3 or 4 feet high

The Nágás cannot be said to possess any organized form of polity Each community has certain chiefs called *peumás* but the authority of these chiefs is little more than nominal, and the office is not hereditary Their one maxim of jurisprudence is that blood once shed can never be expiated, except by the death of the murderer or one of his nearest relatives Hence blood feuds last from generation to generation A noticeable feature in these internal quarrels is that the whole of one village is seldom at war with the whole of another village, but clan is at feud with clan, and it may thus happen that a single village contains two hostile clans within its walls, with a neutral clan living between on good terms with both The Nágas are fond of hunting, and esteem the flesh of the elephant as a great delicacy They secure their game by

pitfall traps covered over with branches and leaves of trees. The bottom of the pit is filled with sharp bamboo spikes, so that any animal falling into it is transfixed and killed. Their only agricultural implements are a heavy, long, square-headed *dáo* or hand-bill, and a light hoe. Their system of cultivation is that known as *júm*, which requires that fresh patches of jungle should be cleared by fire every three years. But in those ranges where the hills have a gentle slope, terraces are cut from the base to the summit; and the same land is continuously cultivated, being irrigated by artificial channels along which water is often conducted from considerable distances.

The Kukís are comparatively recent immigrants into the Nágá Hills from the mountains bordering on Tipperah and Chittagong. They form what is known as the Langtung colony, and are a short, hardy, and warlike race, much feared and respected by the tribes among whom they dwell. Their villages are all situated in dense jungle, and generally on high ridges with water near at hand. Some of the principal villages contain as many as two hundred houses, built on platforms raised three or four feet above the ground. The houses are built wholly of bamboos, and generally divided into two apartments. The chief's residence is, of course, much larger, and built with large posts, and thatched with grass and bamboo leaves intermingled. The dress of the Kukís is of the scantiest, often consisting of nothing beyond a large cotton shawl or sheet (*chádar*), either wrapped round the loins, or hanging down from the shoulder to the knee. The women wear a short petticoat reaching from the waist to the knee, with generally a second petticoat tied under the armpits, but this is frequently discarded for a small cotton shawl thrown loosely over the shoulders. They are of excessively filthy habits, and disease and death are constantly among them.

The Kukís are the only tribe in the Nágá Hills who have a recognised head, whom they call *hausá;* his word is law, and he is the arbitrator in all quarrels and disputes. The chieftainship and title are hereditary honours, descending from father to son. Their ideas as to religion and a future state are very vague; but, like nearly all savage tribes, they believe in the existence of evil spirits or demons, whose machinations are only to be averted by sacrifice. They also seem to believe in a future state of retribution, and in a plurality of gods. The principal deities worshipped are called Tevae and Sangron, to whom fowls, pigs, and rice spirits are offered in sacrifice on occasions of sickness, famine, or other afflictions. They believe that when the spirit leaves the body, the angel of death conveys it away. If a good life has been led in this world, the soul is transported with a song of triumph to the gods, ever after to remain at ease. The sinner, however, is subject to a variety of tortures in the next world—to impalement, hanging, immer-

sion in boiling water, etc The Kukís are very fond of the chase, and are expert huntsmen, destroying more wild beasts than any other tribe in the District Wild elephants are killed for the sake of the tusks, which find a ready sale in the markets

Bows and arrows, spears, and *daos* form their weapons They are very fond of war, not apparently for the mere sake of plunder, but to gratify a spirit of revenge, or to procure heads for religious ceremonies on the death of a chief Like all other wild tribes, their knowledge of war consists simply in surprising their enemies They surround the place to be attacked in the night time, and at break of day rush in from every quarter and massacre indiscriminately all they come across. The small clan residing within the Nága Hills are said to have lived peaceably for several years past, and there is every probability of their continuing to do so in future One of their customs is, on the death of a chief or head man, to smoke dry the body and keep it for two months, after which it is interred with grand honours, and a great feast is given to the whole clan Rice and cotton are the chief products, which are cultivated on the *jum* system, but in a manner different to that followed by the Cacharis and Nagás, who take three or four successive crops from the same land, the Kukis, however, take only one crop and clear fresh ground every year Men women, and children are inveterate smokers The women bear the heaviest burdens of life When not employed in household duties, or in the cultivation of their fields, they work at their looms, weaving cloths for the family, while the men set about basking in the sun

The Mikirs are the most peaceful and industrious of the hill tribes, and labour under the imputation of cowardice because they are less warlike and vindictive than their neighbours. They inhabit the lower hills, usually within a day's journey from the plains, and since our annexation of Assam, they have been recognised from the first as British subjects, and rendered liable to pay a house-tax. Within the limits of the Nagá Hills District, the Mikirs are estimated to number 8800 In the neighbouring District of Nowgong they numbered 47,497 persons in 1881, dwelling in the border tract specially known as the Mikir Hills They live, not in organized communities, but in solitary huts or small hamlets, as many as thirty individuals sometimes occupying the same house They carry on a brisk traffic with Bengali traders, bartering their cotton, *eria* silk, and various jungle products for salt and piece goods As is also the case with the Cacharis, they have recently fallen under the influence of Hinduism, and *gosains* or religious instructors of the Vishnuite sect are now very busy among them

Next to the civil and military administrative head-quarters at Kohima, the following places are estimated to contain over two thousand inhabitants —Kohima (the Angami village), Viswema, Chanduma, and

Sephima. Dimápur, on the Dhaneswarí river, about 15 miles distant from the civil station, which has recently been created a police outpost, has become the home of a few Márwárí and Muhammadan traders. Up to 1876, five villages occupied by Angámí Nágás, and one village of Kachha Nágás, had been subjected to the payment of a house-tax. By 1882, 69 Angámí, 22 Kachha, 8 Semá, 9 Rengmá, and 54 Lhotá villages were assessed for house-tax at a rate of Rs. 2 per house.

Agriculture, etc.—The staple crop grown throughout the hills is rice, which yields two harvests. The *kezí* crop, corresponding to the *áus* of the plains, is sown broadcast about April, and reaped in July. It can be cultivated on any description of forest land, and yields a coarse grain, which is consumed locally. The *thedí* or *chedí* crop corresponds to the *sálí* of Assam and the *áman* of Bengal. It requires good soil and careful irrigation. It is sown about June, transplanted in the following month, and harvested in November. Of recent years, a considerable extension of rice cultivation has taken place, especially in the neighbourhood of Sámaguting; but at least three-fourths of the District area is still uncultivated waste. The other food crops comprise Indian corn, two small species of grain called *suthe* and *kesithe*, and various vegetables. Potatoes were introduced by the Deputy Commissioner in 1869. Cotton cultivation is restricted to the lower ranges lying north of the Bárel and Rengmá Hills, which are chiefly occupied by Rengmá Nágás and Míkírs. The tea plant is indigenous to the country, but the general state of insecurity, combined with other causes, has hitherto kept European capital at a distance. The only agricultural implements used are the *dáo* or hill-knife and a rude *kodálí* or hoe. No animals are required for the primitive methods of tillage; but oxen of several breeds, pigs, goats, and even dogs, are bred for food or barter. Irrigation is extensively practised, both from natural watercourses and artificial channels. In only two villages is the Government revenue raised by means of a rent assessed upon the cultivated land; and in these cases the rates are as follows:—For *bastí* or homestead land, on which vegetables, etc. are raised, 1s. 8d. per acre; *rupit* or lowland, suited for the valuable crop of *thedí* rice, 2s. 1d. per acre; *faringhátí* or high land, suited for *kezí* rice and a second crop of mustard seed or pulses, 1s. 8d. per acre. The natural calamities of flood and drought are practically unknown in the District; but the rice crops occasionally suffer from the ravages of insects, rats, and mice.

There are no regular rates of wages or of prices in the District. Prior to the formation of Sámaguting into a civil station, the Nágás were entirely ignorant of the value of money, and all trade was conducted by barter. Even at the present day, copper coins are looked upon with suspicion in the remote villages. The Nágás had no native standards of weight or measurement, but the *maund* and *ser* of the plains have

now been generally introduced In 1871, ordinary day labourers could not be obtained for less than 6d or 9d a day, skilled artisans, who are imported from Assam or Bengal demanded £1, 10s a month In 1883-84, the price of unskilled labour was as high as from 1s to 2s, and skilled artisans obtained from 2s to 4s per diem The excessive rate of wages, indeed, forms the great obstacle to the carrying out of public improvements In March 1871, best cleaned rice sold for £1 per cwt, common rice for 9s 4d per cwt, and common unhusked paddy for 4s per cwt These prices, however, vary greatly according to the season and the state of the market In 1883-84, the price of common rice was 10s. 11d. per cwt

Manufactures, etc—The manufacturing industries of the Nágá Hills are solely confined to the production of the few rude articles required for domestic use The most important is the weaving of coarse thick cloth of various patterns, the prevailing colours being dark blue, with red and yellow stripes, and brown, with black stripes The material is either cotton, the fibre of a plant of the nettle species or the bark of a certain creeper The weaving is done by the women, on whom also is laid a full share of the burden of agricultural operations, as well as all in-door work The only ironwork consists of the forging of *dáos*, *kodális*, and spear heads

Trade is generally conducted by means of barter, and has increased very much both in amount and complexity of recent years There are no permanent markets, and the profits are entirely in the hands of Márwári and Muhammadan traders During the rains, water communication is available by means of the principal rivers A tolerable road, 67 miles in length, extends from Sámaguting to the river mart of Golághát, in the District of Sibságar, and there are several passes across the southern hills into Cachar and Manipur, over which ponies can be led. A good bridle road has now (1883) been opened out from Dimápur to Kohima The local products available for export comprise rice, cotton, cloth woven from the nettle fibre, ivory, beeswax, and various dyes obtained from the jungle In exchange, salt and iron are imported, but the one great desire of every Nága to satisfy which he will run any risk and pay any price, is a gun and ammunition

Administration—The District has been formed so recently, and still remains in such a backward state of civilisation that the revenue bears a very small proportion to the expenditure In 1869-70, the receipts from all sources amounted to only £497, which total, however, shows an increase of more than eleven fold on the year but one previous, the house tax contributed £430, and the land tax proper, £55 The expenditure on civil administration in the same year was £6220 In 1881-82, the house tax and land revenue combined yielded a total revenue of £2496, and in 1883-84 of £2829 The other main items of

revenue in 1883-84 comprised excise, £529; stamps, £838; elephant *mahals*, £540; and fisheries, £30. Seven European officers are stationed in the District. For police purposes, the Nágá Hills is divided into the Kohima, Wokhá, and Dimápur *thánás*, while outposts are stationed at Henimá, Sámaguting, Pephima, Kemphima, and Pherimá. The police force, which is organized on a semi-military basis, numbers 460 officers and men. A regiment of Native infantry is also quartered in the District. [For further information regarding the Nágá Hills, and the races inhabiting the tract, see *The Statistical Account of Assam*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. ii. pp. 173-199 (Trübner & Co., London, 1879); *Report on Survey Operations in the Nágá Hills* in 1875-76, by Lieut. R. G. Woodthorpe, R.E.; and the annual Administration Reports of the Assam Government.]

Nagal.—Village in Dehra Dún District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 30° 23′ N., long. 78° 10′ E. Situated on the Garhwál boundary, close to a small river, which is utilized for numerous mills.

Nágalapúr.—Low hill range in Chengalpat District, Madras, lying between 13° 24′ and 13° 27′ 40″ N. lat., and between 79° 49′ and 79° 51′ 50″ E. long.; connected with the Sattiáwad Hills on the north, and the Nágari group on the west. Average height, about 1800 feet. Bluff ridges and beetling crags, here and there starting up into sharp tapering peaks, are the characteristics of the range. Highest peak, 2500 feet. Three zig-zag passes cross the range.

Nágamangala.—*Táluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State. Area, 313 square miles, of which 75 are cultivated. Population (1871) 74,702; (1881) 53,870, namely, 25,446 males and 28,424 females. Hindus numbered 52,951; Muhammadans, 901; and 'others,' 18. Land revenue (1881-82), exclusive of water rates, £7618, or 3s. per cultivated acre. Expenditure on administration for 1881-82, £1011. Sheep-breeding is very extensively carried on, also the manufacture of brass utensils by the Jains at BELLUR. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 5; regular police, 44 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 306. Total revenue, £12,673.

Nágamangala.—Village in Hassan District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 49′ 10″ N., and long. 76° 47′ 40″ E., 61 miles by road south-east of Hassan town, and 28 miles north of Seringapatam. Head-quarters of the Nágamangala *táluk*. Population (1881) 2397. An ancient town, containing the remains of several temples and royal buildings. Formerly the residence of a line of *pálegárs*. The inner fort is said to have been erected in 1270; the outer fortifications are assigned to 1578. In 1630 it was captured by the Hindu Rájá of Mysore. The whole town was sacked and reduced to ruins by the Maráthás during the war with Tipú Sultán in 1792.

Nágapatnam.—Town in Tanjore, Madras Presidency.—*See* NEGAPATAM.

Nagar (or *Rájnagar*).—Town and ancient capital of Bírbhum District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 56′ 50″ N., long. 87° 21′ 45″ E. Formerly of considerable importance as the metropolis of the Hindu princes of Bírbhum, prior to the conquest of Bengal by the Muhammadans in 1203 A.D. In 1244 it was plundered by the Uriyás. The site of Nagar is now covered with crumbling houses, mouldering mosques, and weed-choked tanks; the ancestral palace of its Rájás has almost fallen into ruins. North of the town, and buried in dense jungle, are the remains of an ancient mud fort said to have been built in the last century as a defence against the Maráthás. The famous Nagar wall or entrenchment, extending in an irregular and broken line around the town for a distance of 32 miles, is now undergoing a rapid process of decay. The *gháts* or gateways have long ceased to be capable of defence, and many parts of the wall have been washed almost level with the ground by the annual rains.

Nagár (*Nagore*, the ancient 'Thellyr').—Seaport in Negapatam *táluk*, Tanjore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 10° 49′ 26″ N., and long. 79° 53′ 24″ E., 3 miles north of, and officially included within, the NEGAPATAM municipality. The harbour is conveniently situated at the mouth of the river Vettár, and a considerable trade is carried on (in native vessels) in areca nuts, spices, timber, and ponies, with the Straits and Burma. The average annual value for the five years ending in 1883-84, was £36,864 for imports, and £6545 for exports. In 1883-84, the imports were valued at £61,749, of which £60,808 came from foreign ports; the exports were valued at £2861, of which £1266 were to foreign ports.

Nagír has a celebrated mosque with a minaret 90 feet high, and is resorted to during its annual festival by Muhammadan pilgrims from all parts of India. The town, with a small territory surrounding it, was sold by the Rajá of Tanjore to the Dutch at Negapatam in 1771, but was soon afterwards wrested from them by the Nawáb of the Karnátik with the aid of the English. It was afterwards restored to the Rájá, who made a grant of it to the English in 1776. In the campaign of 1780-81, food supplies were obtained hence for the British troops. Haidar ceded the place to the Dutch, from whom it passed to the English in 1781.—(For municipal and population details, see NEGAPATAM.)

Nágar.—River of Northern Bengal. Approaching Dinájpur District from Purniah at its extreme northernmost point, it flows southward for about 90 miles, marking the boundary between Dinájpur and Purniah, till it falls into the MAHANANDA (lat. 25° 29′ 45″ N., long. 88° 7′ E.), at the point where the latter river first touches on Dinájpur. Navigable by large cargo-boats during the rainy season. Chief tributaries—Patkí and Kulik. The bed of the Nágar is rocky in the north, but becomes

sandy towards its southern section; the banks are sloping and for the most part uncultivated.

Nágar.—Small river of Northern Bengal; rises in the north of Bogra District, enters Rájsháhí, and after a course of about 20 miles in the latter District, falls into the Gur, which is the name given to the united streams of the Atrái and Jamuná.

Nagar.—Division of Mysore State, Southern India, comprising the three Districts of SHIMOGA, KADUR, and CHITALDRUG, each of which see separately. Area of Nagar Division, 11,652 square miles; number of villages and towns, 4766; number of occupied houses, 216,999; and of unoccupied houses, 35,959. Population (1871) 1,364,261; (1881) 1,204,365, namely, 618,981 males and 585,384 females. Number of persons per square mile, 103; towns and villages per square mile, 0·4; occupied houses per square mile, 18·6; and persons per occupied house, 5·5. Hindus numbered 1,146,470; Muhammadans, 55,028; Christians, 2864; and 'others,' 3.

Nagar.—*Táluk* of Shimoga District, Mysore State. Area, 494 square miles. Revenue, £16,052. Population (1881) 43,665, namely, 23,659 males and 20,006 females. Hindus numbered 42,663; Muhammadans, 850; and Christians, 152. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 8; regular police, 53 men. The country is densely wooded, and is almost enclosed by hills. Chief products, rice and areca-nut.

Nagar (or *Bednúr*).—Village in Shimoga District, Mysore State, Southern India. Lat. 13° 15′ N., long. 75° 6′ E. In 1640, Nagar, under the name of Bednúr, became the capital of the Keladi chieftains, who transferred the seat of their Government from IKKERI. It attained great prosperity, and was strongly fortified with a wall 8 miles in circumference with 10 gates. When sacked by Haidar Alí in 1763, it is said to have yielded a booty of millions sterling. The conqueror named it Haidar Nagar, established his arsenal here, and continued the mint at which the first Haidari pagodas were struck. Nagar suffered during the wars with Tipú Sultán, and was also an object of attack in the insurrection of 1830. It has latterly benefited by the opening of roads across the *gháts*, and is the head-quarters of Nagar *táluk*. The name of Nagar, by which the old Bednúr is now generally known, was given to it in the days when it was boasted to contain a *lákh* (100,000) of houses.

Nagar.—Town in the Kúlu Sub-division of Kángra District, Punjab; situated on the left bank of the Beas (Biás) river, 12 miles due north of Sultánpur, the head-quarters town. Former capital of the Kúlu Rájás, and now the residence of the Assistant Commissioner. The ancient palace of the Rájás crowns an eminence looking down upon

the river from a height of about a thousand feet It commands a magnificent view, and itself forms a striking feature from the town

Nágar—Hill range, covered with forest, between Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Mandla Districts, Central Provinces The valley of the Narbada (Nerbudda) lies below

Nagarbasti—Town in Darbhangah District Bengal, situated on the east bank of the Little Gandak in lat 25° 52′ 15″ N, and long 85° 51′ 30″ E., 20 miles south of the town of Darbhangah. Population (1881) 1070 Roads lead to Malinagar, to Biláspur for Darbhangah, and to Ruserá *via* Jitwárpur indigo factory on the opposite bank of the river *Thánà*, school, and *bazár* bi weekly market.

Nagardhán—Decayed town in Nagpur District Central Provinces —*See* NANDARDHAN

Nagari—Hill range in North Arcot District, Madras, forming the extreme south easterly spur of the Eastern Gháts and consisting of 'altered and hardened sandstone some hundreds of feet thick, upheaved towards the east in perpendicular precipices by granite or gneiss rocks, which are intersected by dikes of serpentine trap —(Cox) The sandstones are of various colours, chiefly pale red, yellow, and white, both in large and small grains The formation is similar to that of Table Mountain at the Cape of Good Hope, near which coal and diamond conglomerates have been found

Nágari Nose—Principal peak of the NAGARI HILLS, North Arcot District, Madras Presidency Lat 13° 22′ 53″ N, long 79° 39′ 22″ E Elevation above the sea, 2824 feet Although 50 miles inland, this hill is visible from the sea in fine weather, and is a recognised landmark At the foot of the hill is the village of Nágari (population in 1881, 2565) near Nágari station on the north west line of the Madras Railway Nagari is a very busy place, visited by merchants from Madras for the purchase of rice, indigo, and ground nuts The rice raised in the neighbourhood is of superior quality Nágari has the largest fair in the District It was once a city more than a mile in diameter

Nagar Khás—Village in Basti *tahsil*, Basti District, North Western Provinces Lat 26° 42′ N, long 82° 43′ E Situated on the northern bank of the Chandu Tál Lake, six miles south west of Basti town Nagar Khas is supposed by General Cunningham to be identical with the ancient Kapila vastu or Kapila nagara the traditional birthplace of Gautama Buddha, although the real site of Buddha s birthplace is doubtful It was certainly the capital of a Gautama principality in the 14th century, and remained the seat of a line of Gautam Rájás till 1858, when their estates were confiscated for rebellion Population (1881) 2371

Nágarkoil—Town in the State of Travancore, Madras Presidency Lat. 8° 11′ N, long 77° 28′ 41″ E. A suburb of Kotar, once the seat

of the Travancore Government, and now the head-quarters of a District, with courts and other Government offices. It is also the centre of a large Christian population. The London Mission Society has a good school and printing-press here. Nágarkoil publishes the only newspaper in the State; and has a reputation for fine lace-work, done by the Mission converts.

Nagar Kot. — Ancient town in Kángra District, Punjab. — *See* KANGRA.

Nagar Párkar.—*Táluk* of the Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, bordering on the Rann of Cutch (Kachchh). Population (1872) 33,259; (1881) 37,512, namely, 20,379 males and 17,133 females, dwelling in 1 town and 3 villages, consisting of 6636 occupied houses. Hindus number 10,160; Muhammadans, 11,192; Sikhs, 25; aboriginal tribes, 15,265; and Jains, 870. Gross revenue (1881-82), £4546; area in 1882 assessed to land revenue, £91,240 acres, the whole of which was under cultivation in 1882. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 2 criminal courts; 17 *thánás* or police circles; 76 regular police.

Nagar Párkar.—Chief town and municipality of Nagar Párkar *táluk*, Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 24° 21′ N., and long. 70° 47′ 30″ E., 120 miles south of Umarkot. Connected by good roads with Islámkot, Mitti, Adigáon, Pitápur, Biráni, and Bela in Cutch (Kachchh). Head-quarters of a *múkhtiyárkár* and *tappádár*, with the usual public buildings and post-office. Population (1881) 1773; municipal revenue (1881-82), £329. Manufactures —weaving and dyeing of cloth. Local trade in cotton, wool, grain, cocoa-nuts, piece-goods, hides, tobacco, and metals; transit trade in grain, camels, cattle, wool, and *ghí*. The town is believed to be of some antiquity; about a mile distant is Sardhára with a temple to Mahádeo, and a spring sacred among Hindus. In 1859, Nagar Párkar was the scene of a rebellion, for the suppression of which a British force was despatched from Haidarábád (Hyderábád). The ringleaders were transported for a term of years.

Nagaur.—Town in Jodhpur State, Rájputána; situated in lat. 27° 11′ 15″ N., and long. 73° 46′ 15″ E., in a jungle-covered plain; distant 84 miles north-west from Nasirábád (Nusseerábád), and 75 north-east from Jodhpur city. Nagaur was first occupied by Chanda, chief of the Rahtor Rájputs, about 1382 A.D. With a valuable adjacent territory, it was for centuries regarded as the appanage of the heir to the *gadi* of Jodhpur. It was several times occupied temporarily by the Musalmán forces,—once notably by Akbar in 1561, who conferred it on the chief of Bikáner; it was, however, subsequently recovered by Jodhpur. It was at one time so prosperous that it is said to have paid £7500 annually from commercial imposts alone. At least one-quarter

of the city is now in ruins, presenting a confused mass of fallen houses and of *debris*, such as one might expect to encounter in some city of the dead, but scarcely to be seen in a town containing some 30,000 inhabitants A superior breed of cattle is reared in the neighbourhood

Nágavali —River in the Madras Presidency —*See* LANGULIYA

Nágavaram — Estate in Yernagudem *táluk*, Godavari District, Madras Presidency Lat 17° 13 40" N, long 81° 22 20" E Population (1881) 5839, number of houses, 1182 Consists of 40 hill villages, inhabited chiefly by Kois, and from one of these villages the estate receives its name The village of Nágavaram has a dilapidated fort

Nagdirgrám —Village in Cachar District, Assam, situated on the left bank of the Sonái river, 1 mile north of its confluence with the Rukhminí and 14 miles south of Silchár, with which it is connected by a good road In January 1871, a Bengalí settlement here was cut to pieces by a party of Lusháis This outrage was an incident in the raid which led to the retributive Lushái expedition of the following year

Naggery —Village and railway station in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency —*See* NAGARI NOSE

Nagína —North eastern *tahsil* of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North Western Provinces, consisting chiefly of a submontane and well watered tract, bordering on the Garhwál Hills, and comprising the three *parganas* of Nagina, Barhapurá, and Afzalgarh A flat plain, well watered by streams, with a high average productiveness, and a remarkably dense population The prevailing features are sugar fields and numerous mango-groves The country is well supplied with means of communication, and nine unmetalled roads converge on Nagína town, the head quarters of the *tahsil*, and the largest town in Bijnaur District Area, 474 square miles, of which 226 square miles are returned as under cultivation Population (1872) 165,116, (1881) 170,075, namely, males 90,554, and females 79,521 Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 113,489, Muhammadans, 56,541, Jains, 33, and 'others,' 12 Of the 465 villages comprising the *tahsil*, 383 contain less than five hundred inhabitants. Land revenue, *£26,620*, [illegible] and cesses levied on [illegible] 60 In 1883, Nagina [illegible], with 5 police circles (*thanas*), a regular police force of 70 men, a town and municipal police of 50 men, and a village watch or rural police of 392 *chaukidárs*

Nagína.—Town and municipality in Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Nagina *tahsil*, situated in lat 29° 27′ 5″ N, and long 78° 28′ 50″ E., on the road from Hardwár

to Moradábád, 48 miles north-west of the latter town. Nagína was founded by the Patháns, between 1748 and 1774, who built the fort, now used as a *tahsílí*. The town was sacked in 1805 by the Rohillá freebooter, Amír Khán; and in 1817 it became the head-quarters of the newly formed District of Northern Moradábád till 1824, when the head-quarters were removed to Bijnaur on the constitution of the present District. Population (1872) 19,696; (1881) 20,503, namely, males 10,325, and females 10,178. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 comprised—Muhammadans, 13,178; Hindus, 7280; Jains, 33; and Christians, 12. Municipal revenue (1883-84), £1220, of which £1159 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per head. Nagína was formerly celebrated for its manufacture of gun-barrels; it is now noted for its cloth, hempen rope and sacking, ebony-carving, glass-ware, and matchlocks. The principal trade is the export of sugar. During the Mutiny of 1857-58 the town was the scene of several conflicts, as well as of the final defeat of the rebels on the 21st April 1858, which crushed out the revolt in Bijnaur District.

Nágkanda (*Narkanda*).—Pass in Kumharsain State, Punjab, lying in lat. 31° 15′ N., and long. 77° 31′ E., over a ridge proceeding westward from Hattu peak. Elevation above sea-level, 9016 feet. The place is much frequented by visitors from Simla on account of the fine view to be obtained of the snowy range. A well-supplied *dák* bungalow is maintained for the convenience of travellers.

Nagode (*Nagaudh* or *Uchahra*).—Petty State under the Baghelkhand Agency, Central India. Bounded on the north-east by the States of Soháwal and Rewá, on the east by Rewá, on the south-east by Maihar, and on the west by Panna. Area, 450 square miles. Population (1881) 79,629, namely, 39,646 males and 39,983 females, of whom 68,070 were Hindus; 2902 Muhammadans; 679 Jains; 11 Christians; 2 Sikhs; and 7965 aboriginal tribes, of whom 2129 were Gonds and 5836 Kols. Revenue, about £15,000, of which £7000 is alienated in *jágírs* and religious and charitable grants. The Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) extension of the East Indian Railway passes through the State. Nagode was originally included, as one of the feudatories of Panna, in the *sanad* granted to Rájá Kisori Singh. But as the State had been in the possession of the Purihar ancestors of Lál Sheoráj Singh before the establishment of the power of Chhatar Sál in Bundelkhand, and the family had never been dispossessed either by the Bundela Rájás or by Alí Bahádur, a *sanad* was given to Lál Sheoráj Singh in 1809, confirming him in the possession of his territory. He was succeeded in 1818 by his son, Balbhadra Singh, who was deposed in 1831 for the murder of his brother. Raghubind, son of Balbhadra, was then a minor, and the State was therefore temporarily

taken under British administration On attaining his majority in 1838, Raghubind was installed The Rája rendered good service during the Mutiny, and was rewarded by a grant of land from the confiscated State of Bijeraghogarh, the right of adoption, and the honour of a salute of 9 guns Raghubind died in 1874 and was succeeded by his son, Jadho Bind Singh, the present Rájá, who is a Parihar Rájput. The military force consists of 2 guns and 116 infantry and police In the *Proceedings of the Asiatic Society of Bengal* for 1874, page 109, will be found an account of the antiquities of this State

Nagode.—Chief town of Nagode State, in Baghelkhand, Central India, situated in lat 24° 33′ 45″ N, and long 80° 37′ 55″ E, on the route by Rewá from Ságar (Saugor) to Allahábád, 110 miles north west of Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Site of a cantonment for British troops. There is a fort here, in which the Rajá once resided, built on the Amran, a tributary of the Tons, at an elevation of 1099 feet above the level of the sea. Nagode was abandoned as a cantonment in 1876, and about the same time the Rája left the town and took up his residence at Uchahra Nagode town has consequently lost much of its importance, the population (1881) has decreased to 4828, and houses both in cantonments and the town are falling into disrepair Nagode is on the road from Satna to Nowgong, 17 miles from the former, and 84 miles from the latter place

Nagore.—Town and port in Tanjore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* NAGAR

Nágothna.—Town in Pen Sub division, Kolaba District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 18° 32′ 30″ N, and long 73° 10′ 55″ E., 24 miles from the mouth of the river Amba, which is navigated by steamers up to Dharamtar ferry, 15 miles below Nágothna, at all times of the year At Dharampur passengers and goods are tran shipped to *machuás* (lateen rigged smacks) of burden up to 20 tons, and carried up with the flood tide to Nágothna The passenger traffic for the Southern Deccan and Konkán is considerable, and cargo is also brought up by boats of 80 tons burden and under The channel has been much improved by the removal of rocks A road, 30 miles in length, runs from this place to Mahableswar, and another running north-east joins the Bombay and Poona road at the foot of the Borghat. In the beginning of the sixteenth century Nágothna belonged to Gujarát On the defeat of the prince of Gujarát by the Portuguese, the neighbourhood of Nagothna seems to have passed to Ahmadnagar, the allies of the Portuguese In 1636, the Mughals handed the Ahmad nagar Konkán to Bijápur About ten years later it passed to Sivaji. It is called Negotan in a treaty between the British and the Peshwa in 1739 Nágothna is 15 miles south of Pen and 40 miles south west from Bombay Average annual value of trade during the five years

ending 1881-82—imports, £6800, and exports, £39,090. Post-office.

Nágpur.—*Division* or Commissionership of the Central Provinces, comprising the Districts of NAGPUR, BHANDARA, CHANDA, WARDHA, and BALAGHAT, all of which see separately; lying between 18° 40′ and 22° 20′ N. lat., and between 78° 4′ 30″ and 81° 9′ E. long. The Division is bounded on the north by Chhindwárá, Seoní, and Mandlá Districts; on the east by Ráipur District and the Native States of Kawardhá, Khairágarh, and Kánker; on the south by the Nizám's Dominions; and on the west by the Amráoti and Wún Districts of Berár. The Nágpur Division contains an area of 24,040 square miles, with 21 towns and 8200 villages, and 580,862 houses. Population (1872) 2,411,278; (1881) 2,758,056, namely, males 1,383,785, and females 1,374,271. Total increase of population in the nine years 1872-1881, 346,778, or 14·4 per cent. Average density of population, 114·7 persons per square mile; towns and villages per square mile, ·34; persons per town or village, 335; houses per square mile, 24·16; persons per house, 4·75.

Classified according to religion, the population of Nágpur Division in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 2,257,206, or 81·8 per cent.; Muhammadans, 84,595, or 3 per cent.; Kábírpanthís, 19,270; Satnámís, 629; Sikhs, 27; Christians, 5428; Buddhists, 6; Brahmos, 6; Jains, 7358; Pársís, 189; Jews, 12; non-Hindu aborigines, 388,324, or 14 per cent.; and 'others,' 6. The total aboriginal population by tribe, as distinguished from religion, numbers 441,838, namely, Gonds of different clans, 428,761; Baigás, 9669; Kawárs, 2402; Korkus, 661; Kols, 297; and Bhíls, 48. Of high caste Hindus, Bráhmans number 44,542, and Rájputs 26,960. The most numerous caste in the Division is the Kúrmí, the principal cultivating class, returned at 407,950, the other preponderating castes ranking as follows in order of numbers:—Mahár, including Somosi, a class of weavers, day-labourers, and village watchmen, 307,691; Telí, oil-pressers, 166,062; Gawarí, cowherds, cartmen, cultivators, and field servants, 101,739; Márár, gardeners and cultivators, 100,661; Powár, agriculturists of Rájput descent, 90,098; Koshtí, weavers, 82,271; Dhimár, fishermen, water-carriers, domestic servants, palanquin-bearers, river-side cultivators, and rearers of the *tasár* silkworm, 78,218; Mehrá, weavers, village watchmen, and cultivators, 68,516; Málí, gardeners, 55,506; Kallár, including Sunri, distillers, wine-sellers, cultivators, traders, and money-lenders, 54 463; Lodhí, landholders and cultivators, 42,456; Máná, cultivators, 39,313; Nái, barbers, 32,575; Sonár, gold and silver smiths, 31,798; Barhái, carpenters, 25,984; Maráthá, cultivators, soldiers, and domestic servants, 25,308; Ahír, cattle-rearers, dairymen, cultivators, farm servants, etc., 21,623; Chamár, skinners and leather dealers, 20,742.

Nágpur Division contains a considerable urban population, residing in 21 towns with upwards of five thousand inhabitants, aggregating 299,184, or 10 8 per cent. of the whole Divisional population, leaving 2,458,872, or 89 2 per cent, as representing the rural or village population Of the 8200 rural villages, 4320 contain less than two hundred inhabitants, 2561 have between two and five hundred, 994 between five hundred and a thousand, 288 from one to three thousand, and 37 from three to five thousand. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six main classes —(1) Professional, military, and official class, 35,945, (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging house keepers, 15,729, (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc, 22 234, (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 603 569, (5) industrial and artisan class, 226,094, (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 480 214

Of the adult male and female agricultural population, 22,570 are returned as landed proprietors, 496,057 as tenant cultivators, of whom 142,050 are tenants without permanent rights, 65,316 are tenants at fixed rates or with rights of occupancy, and 288,691 are assistants in home cultivation, while 526,410 agricultural labourers, estate agents, farm bailiffs, etc, bring the total adult agricultural population of the Nagpur Division to 1,051,060, or 38 1 per cent of the Divisional population, average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 9 acres per head Of the total area of 24,040 square miles, 18,188 square miles are assessed for Government land revenue, of which 6243 square miles are returned as under cultivation, 7110 square miles as cultivable, and 4835 square miles as uncultivable waste Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £231,607, or an average of 1s 1d per cultivated acre Total amount of rent actually paid by cultivators, £371,305, or an average of 1s 10⅝d. per cultivated acre Total Government revenue from all sources in 1883–84, £413 810 Justice is afforded by 50 civil and 55 criminal courts, including the head quarters courts and offices of the Chief Commissioner of the Central Provinces [For further information, see the separate articles on the Districts comprising the Division enumerated above]

Nagpur.—District in the Nagpur Division of the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 20° 36′ and 21° 43′ N. lat, and between 78° 17 and 79° 42 E long It forms an irregular triangle, with its eastern base resting on Bhandárá, its northern side bounded by Chhindwará and Seoní, and its south western side by Wardhá. At its south-eastern angle it adjoins Chándá District, while on the west its apex touches Berár Population in 1881, 697,356 souls area, 3786 square miles. The administrative head quarters of the

Waná, the Sur, and the Bor) flows between high banks, in a narrow channel deep below the surface of the country, along a sandy bed, barred here and there with jagged ledges of rock. In a flood, the waters swell with extraordinary rapidity, and pour down in impetuous torrents to the Waingangá. Here and there rises a solitary height, such as the Haldolí Hills in the south east, 1300 feet high, the heights at Chápgarhí and Bhiokúnd, and in the north-east of the District, the sacred hill of Rámtek. The last attains an elevation of 1400 feet above the sea. It is in the form of a horse shoe, with the heel towards the south-east. At its outer extremity towards the north, the cliff is scarped, rising sheer from the base about 500 feet. On the summit are the old fortress and the temples below in the hollow formed by the inner sides of the hill, and embosomed in groves of mango and tamarind, nestles a lake its margin adorned with temples, and enclosed by broad flights of steps of hewn stone reaching down to the water. From the summit, the prospect is wide and magnificent. Lastly, in the middle of the plain stands the isolated little hill crowned by the Sítábaldi fort, commanding an extensive view, and interesting both from its historical associations and its geological importance.

Within the limits of the horizon, as seen from Sitábaldi, every formation belonging to the District is to be found. Indeed, the circuit of a few hundred yards presents an epitome of the geology of the Peninsula. On the hill top, the surface is strewn with nodular trap. A few yards below, in the scarped face of the hill, may be traced a shallow layer of fresh water formation, below this, a soft bluish tufa, which passes into a porous amygdaloid, and deeper, into an exceedingly fine augitic greenstone. At the base of the hill, beneath the basalt, is sand stone, and below the sandstone, gneiss. This juxtaposition of volcanic and plutonic rocks, enclosing between them the wreck of a vast sand stone formation, invests the geology of Nágpur with particular interest. Over more than half the area of the District, trap is the surface rock. The serrated outline of the Baláhi Hills, near Bhandará, indicates the crystalline formations which extend down to Cuttack, as the flattened summits characterize the trap. In the upper part of the Waná valley, and northwards from Nágpur up the basins of the Kolar, the Kanhan, and the Pench, sandstone formations predominate. In some few parts, s at Maundá, and near Umrer, beds of laterite occur on the surface. he superficial deposits are the *regar* or black cotton soil, and the red il. The former is found almost universally with trap, and seldom ceeds 12 feet in depth. The red soil is sometimes as deep as 50 t, and occurs with plutonic rocks, sandstone, or laterites. Neither posit is fossiliferous.

History.—The first rulers in this part of the country are said to have n the mythical Gaulí chieftains, whose exploits yet live in the songs

tobacco on 815 acres, besides vegetables of different kinds on 4539 acres

Of the adult male and female agricultural population in 1881, 5988 were returned as landed proprietors, 98,006 as tenant cultivators, of whom 17,681 were tenants at will, 14,209 were tenants at fixed rates or with rights of occupancy, 61,215 were assistants in home cultivation, and 104,293 were agricultural labourers Estate agents, farm bailiffs, shepherds, herdsmen, etc, bring up the total adult agricultural population of Nágpur District to 209,568, or 30 per cent of the District population, average area of cultivated and cultivable land, 8 acres per head Of late years, the condition of the husbandmen has generally improved The rent rates per acre in 1883 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows — Land suited for wheat or inferior grain, 2s per acre, for rice, 2s, for oil seeds 1s 11½d, for cotton, 2s 2¼d, for sugar cane, 2s 4d Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £88,058, or an average of 1s 6⅞d per cultivated area Total rental paid by cultivators, including rates and cesses, £127 559 Average produce per acre—wheat, 300 lbs., rice, 504 lbs, inferior grain, 306 lbs, oil seeds, 144 lbs, cotton, 100 lbs, sugar (gur), 500 lbs The prices per cwt were—rice, 6s 10d, wheat, 5s 1d linseed, 7s 6d, cotton, raw, 12s 3d, refined sugar, £1, 16s Skilled labourers received up to 1s. per diem, unskilled, as low as 4½d On the forest lands, which cover an area of 320,000 acres, most of the fine timber has been felled, but under the present system of conservation, the saplings are making progress Of forest fruit trees, the most important is the mahud, from the flowers of which is distilled daru, the spirituous liquor most used in the District

Commerce and Trade—The principal exports consist of raw cotton, grain and other agricultural produce, and cloth, the principal imports are salt, sugar, English piece and miscellaneous goods, cattle, hardware, and cutlery The exports considerably exceed the imports in value, and therefore large quantities of gold and silver are sent into the District from Bombay The manufacture of common cotton cloth is declining, owing to the competition of machine made goods from England Kámthí is by far the largest entrepot for wheat, rice and other grain, but the cotton produced in Nágpur mostly finds its way to Hinganghát in Wardhá District, or to Amráoti in Berar from whence it is transported to Bombay There are over 200 miles of made roads in Nágpur The chief lines are the northern road to Jabalpur (Jubbulpore), the eastern road to Bhandára, the southern road to Chándá, and the north western road to Chhindwárá The Nágpur branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway leaves the main line at Bhosáwal, and terminates at Sítábaldí, the western suburb of Nágpur, it has a station also at Bori

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The Christians comprise—Europeans, 1446; Eurasians, 630; Indo-Portuguese, 66; Natives of India, 2303; and unspecified, 405.

Town and Rural Population.—Nágpur District contains nine towns with a population exceeding five thousand inhabitants, namely, NAGPUR CITY, 98,299; KAMTHI (Kampti), 50,987; UMRER, 14,247; KHAPA, 8465; RAMTEK, 7814; NARKHER, 7061; MOHPA, 5515; KALMESHWAR, 5318; and SAONER, 5023. The total urban population thus disclosed amounts to 202,729, or over 29 per cent. of the total inhabitants, a ratio considerably higher than in any other District of the Central Provinces. The 1673 villages are thus classified:—889 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 574 from two to five hundred; 149 from five hundred to a thousand; 33 from one to two thousand; 15 from two to three thousand; and 13 from three to five thousand. Nágpur District contains 8 municipal towns, with a total population of 194,207 souls; total municipal income in 1882–83, £27,089, of which £23,847 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 5½d. per head of the municipal population. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional, military, and official class, 13,513; (2) domestic class, including inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 8135; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 9055; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 126,353; (5) industrial and artisan class, 66,088; (6) indefinite, non-productive, and unspecified class, comprising general labourers and male children, 128,612. The material condition of both the agricultural and non-agricultural classes has greatly increased of late years, owing to the increased demand for cotton in the English market, the extension of cultivation, the opening out of railway and road communications, and a considerable rise in the prices of agricultural produce, as well as in the rate of wages.

Agriculture.—Of the total area (3786 square miles), 1932 were returned in 1883–84 as cultivated; and of the portion lying waste, 789 square miles were returned as cultivable; and 1065 square miles as uncultivable waste. The total area assessed for Government revenue is 3005 square miles, of which 1783 square miles are under cultivation, 474 square miles cultivable, and 748 square miles uncultivated waste. The agricultural produce consists of three classes—the *rabi* or spring crops, the *kharíf* or rain crops, and the *bághdít* or garden crops. Wheat is the grand *rabi* crop, and was grown in 1883 on 343,226 acres. Other food-grains occupied 517,738 acres; while 198,561 acres were devoted to oil-seeds. Of the *kharíf* crops, by far the most important is cotton, which in 1883 was grown on 115,909 acres. Rice occupied 32,417 acres. The garden cultivation, which is confined to the best black soil, produced sugar-cane on 1288 acres, and

tobacco on 815 acres, besides vegetables of different kinds on 45 acres

Of the adult male and female agricultural population in 1881, 598 were returned as landed proprietors, 98,006 as tenant cultivators, of whom 17,681 were tenants at will, 14,209 were tenants at fixed rates or with rights of occupancy, 61,215 were assistants in home cultivation, and 104,293 were agricultural labourers Estate agents, farm bailiffs, shepherds, herdsmen, etc, bring up the total adult agricultural population of Nágpur District to 209,568, or 30 per cent of the District population, average area of cultivated and cultivable land 8 acres per head Of late years, the condition of the husbandmen has generally improved The rent rates per acre in 1883 for the different qualities of land are returned as follows —Land suited for wheat or inferior grain, 2s. per acre, for rice, 2s, for oil seeds 1s 11¼d, for cotton, 2s 2½d, for sugar cane, 2s 4d Total amount of Government assess ment, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £88,058, or an average of 1s. 6⅜d per cultivated area Total rental paid by culti vators, including rates and cesses, £127,559 Average produce per acre—wheat, 300 lbs, rice, 504 lbs inferior grain, 306 lbs, oil seeds, 144 lbs., cotton, 100 lbs, sugar (*gur*), 500 lbs The prices per cwt. were—rice, 6s 10d, wheat, 5s 1d, linseed, 7s 6d cotton, raw, 12s. 3d, refined sugar, £1, 16s Skilled labourers received up to 1s. per diem, unskilled, as low as 4½d. On the forest lands, which cover an area of 320,000 acres, most of the fine timber has been felled, but under the present system of conservation, the saplings are making progress Of forest fruit trees, the most important is the *mahuá*, from the flowers of which is distilled *daru*, the spirituous liquor most used in the District.

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Twenty-six miles of this line lie within the District. The partially opened Nágpur-Chhatísgarh Railway also intersects Nágpur District for a distance of about twenty-four miles.

Administration.—In 1861, Nágpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1876-77, £135,220, of which the land-tax yielded £83,416; total revenue in 1883-84, £154,275, of which the land-tax contributed £82,881. The *pándhri*, a kind of house-tax, is peculiar to this part of the country. Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds in 1883-84, £19,545. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District, 18; magistrates, 22. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 38 miles; average distance, 21 miles. Number of police, 1005 men, costing £13,212; being 1 policeman to about every 3¾ miles and to every 694 inhabitants. The daily average number of prisoners in jail in 1883 was 848, of whom 52 were females. The total cost of the jails in that year was £5383. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 197, attended by 11,502 pupils. During the year 1882, no less than 181,191 persons visited the Nágpur Museum.

Medical Aspects.—The year is divided into three seasons: the hot, from the beginning of April to the beginning of June; the rainy season sets in in June, and lasts till September, the latter month and October being generally close and sultry, though refreshed by occasional showers; the cold weather occupies the intervening months till the ensuing April. The annual mean temperature at Nágpur for a period of twelve years is returned at 78·7° F., the monthly means being—January, 68·6°; February, 73·8°; March, 81·8°; April, 88·7°; May, 93°; June, 86·2°; July, 79·1°; August, 79°; September, 79·1°; October, 77·1°; November, 70·9°; and December, 67·4°. In 1883, the temperature in the shade at the civil station was returned as follows:—May, highest reading 117·7° F., lowest 75·5°; July, highest 94·3°, lowest 71·1°; December, highest 82·2°, lowest 43·1°. The average annual rainfall is returned at 43·88 inches. The rainfall in 1883 amounted to 61·45 inches, being 17·57 inches above the average.

From the middle of September to the middle of December is the most unhealthy period of the year. The prevailing disease is fever, but cholera is occasionally epidemic; of late years, the ravages of small-pox have been materially lessened by vaccination. The total number of registered deaths in 1883 was 21,456 (from fever, 4587), equal to a rate of 44·63 per thousand, as against an annual mean of 33·66 per thousand for the previous five years. Nágpur has a lunatic and a leper asylum, and a medical school; and during the year 1883, 10 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 148,211 in-door and out-door

patients [For further information regarding Nágpur District, see the *Gazetteer of the Central Provinces*, by Mr (now Sir Charles) Grant, pp 292–345 (Nagpur, 1870), the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881, the *Settlement Report of Nagpur District*, by A. B Ross, Esq (1869), and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government]

Nágpur—Central *tahsil* or Sub-division of Nágpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 852 square miles with 3 towns 418 villages, and 58,806 houses Population (1872) 244 626 (1881) 268,479, namely, males 136,065, and females 132 414 average density of population, 315 12 persons per square mile The total adult agricultural population (male and female) numbers 48 539 with an average area of 9 acres of cultivated and cultivable land to each Of the total area of the *tahsil* (852 square miles) 103 square miles are held revenue free, while 749 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 473 square miles are cultivated and 115 square miles are available for cultivation, the remainder being uncultivable waste Total amount of Government land revenue including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £24,224, or an average of 1s 5⅝d per cultivated acre, amount of rent paid by cultivators including rates and cesses, £34,622, or an average of 2s 1¼d per cultivated acre Nagpur *tahsil* contained in 1883, 11 civil and 15 criminal courts (including the Divisional and District head-quarter courts) with 3 police stations (*thánás*), and 6 outpost stations (*chaukis*), a regular police force 85 strong, besides a village watch of 717 *chaukidars*

Nágpur—Chief town of Nágpur District and the seat of administration of the Central Provinces situated in the centre of Nágpur District, in lat. 21° 9′ 30″ N., and long 79° 7′ E., on a small stream called the Nág The municipal limits include, besides the city proper, the suburb of Sitábaldi, the European station of Sitábaldi with Tákli, and a considerable area of land (chiefly black soil) under cultivation In the centre stands Sitabaldi Hill, crowned with the fort, which commands a fine view of the country round Below on the north and west, lies the prettily wooded station of Sitábaldi Beyond, to the north, are the military lines and *bázars* and again beyond these, the suburb of Tákli, once the head-quarters of the Nágpur irregular force, but now occupied only by a few bungalows Close under the southern side of the hill is the native suburb of Sítábaldi. Below the eastern glacis is the railway terminus Beyond this lies the broad sheet of water known as the Jamá Taláo, and farther east is the city, completely hidden in a mass of foliage Three great roads connect the city with the European station, two of which are respectively on the north and south banks of the lake, while the third, the most northern, crosses the railway by a bridge to the north of the terminus The handsome tanks

and gardens outside the city were constructed by the Marāthā princes. The three finest tanks are the Jamá Taláo, Ambájharí, and Telingkherí, which supply a considerable portion of Nágpur with water. The chief gardens are the Mahárāj Bágh, in the station of Sítábaldí, the Tulsí Bágh, inside the city, and the four suburban gardens of Páldi, Shakardára, Sonágáon, and Telingkherí. Of the numerous Hindu temples, some are in the best style of Marāthā architecture, with elaborate carvings. The Bhonsla palace, built of black basalt, and profusely ornamented with wood carving, was burnt down in 1864, and only the great 'Nakárkhána' gate remains. The tombs of the Bhonsla kings are in the Sukrawari quarter, to the south of the city.

The population of Nágpur city (including the military lines and municipality) in 1872 was 84,441; in 1881 it had increased to 98,299, namely, males 50,032, and females 48,267. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 79,842; Muhammadans, 14,110; Christians, 2424; Jains, 959; Kabírpanthis, 63; Satnámis, 8; Pársís, 138; Brahmos, 6; Buddhists, 2; Jews, 4; aboriginal religions, 737; unspecified, 6. In 1882–83, the Nágpur municipality had an income of £17,870, of which £15,089 was derived from taxation, mainly octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 3s. 1d. per head.

Nágpur carries on a large and increasing trade, the chief imports being wheat and other grain, salt, country cloth, European piece and miscellaneous goods, silk, and spices. The chief article of manufacture and export is cloth. The finer fabrics of Nágpur have long been famous, and are still, in spite of the competition of English stuffs, in great request. Large weekly *bázárs* (markets) are held in the Gurganj Square and in the Gachí Pagá. Most of the public offices are in the civil station of Sítábaldí, including the old Nágpur Residency, now the official residence of the Chief Commissioner, a plain but commodious building in well-wooded grounds, and the Secretariat, a large and substantial edifice. The city contains the Small Cause Court, the *tahsíli*, the Honorary Magistrates' Court, and the police station-houses. Other institutions are—the Nágpur central jail, built to contain 1060 prisoners; the city hospital, with three branch dispensaries in different quarters of the town; the lunatic asylum; the leper asylum; the Sítábaldí poor-house; the Morris College; the City High School; Normal School; the Free Church Mission Native School; Roman Catholic School; the Bishop's School, for the education of European and Eurasian boys; and the Railway School. There are three public *saráis* (native inns), besides several private *dharmsálás* for similar purposes. The military force consists of a small detachment from the English regiment at Kámthí (Kamptee), the head-quarters and wing of a regiment of Native infantry, and a company of sappers and miners. The former garrison the fort (built in 1819); the arsenal, just below the fort, contains con-

siderable stores and munitions of war Both town and sta considered healthy

Nagrám.—Town in Lucknow District Oudh situated about between the two roads from Lucknow city to Sultanpur and Rai Population (1881) 4838 Annual *bázar* sales about £3550, the cipal trade being in rice which is largely cultivated in the neigh hood Two schools one for boys and one for girls Said to been founded by Rajá Nal, a Bhar chieftain the site of whose for exists. It fell within the track of Sayyid Salar s invasion but it afterwards again left to the Bhars who held it till they were expe by the Kumhráwan Amethiá Rájputs a branch of the family establis at Amethia Dingur They were afterwards expelled by the Muh madans, although they subsequently succeeded in regaining a portion their possessions Sayyids now hold two out of the three divisio (*tarafs*) of the place

Nagwán—Village in Garhwál State North Western Provinces La 30° 50 N, long 78° 19 E (Thornton) lies on the Budiya stream feeder of the Jumna (Jamuná) close to their confluence According to Hindu belief, the Ganges reaches the village by a subterranean course, and breaks out in a neighbouring spring

Nahan (*Sirmur* or *Sarmor*) — Native State in the Punjab — *See* SIRMUR

Náhan.—Capital of SIRMUR (Sarmor) Hill State in the Punjab — residence of the Rájá, situated about 40 miles south of Simla at the western extremity of the Kiarda Dun, and from its elevated position (3207 feet) visible from the plains at a considerable distance Moor croft describes it as cleaner and handsomer than the generality of Indian towns Náhan is built on the uneven crest of a rocky eminence the houses are small, built of stone cemented with lime The Rája s dwelling is a large edifice of stone in the centre of the town There are seven or eight houses built in European style outside the town One very fine house, surrounded by a handsome garden has been lately erected by the Rájá for his own use Several excellent houses are used as rest houses for the Rájá s guests, and as residences for the European officials of the State Population (1881) 5253, namely —Hindus, 4145 Muhammadans, 985, Sikhs 102, Jains, 5, and others, 16 Number of houses, 937 Large, well supplied *bázar*, *dak* bungalow, 2 *saráis*, dispensary, school, and an iron foundry worked by the State On an eminence adjacent to the town, a new cantonment has been laid out for the Rájá s troops Nahan was occupied by the British during the Nepal war of 1814, and at the close of the campaign was restored to the Rájá of Sirmur, from whom it had been wrested by the Gurkhas

Nahára.—Petty State of the Pándu Mehwás, in Re

Bombay Presidency. Area, 3 square miles, with, including Nahára, five villages. Held jointly by two proprietors, called *thákurs*. Revenue, £60; tribute of £2, 10s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Náigáon Ribahi (or *Nayágáon*, or *Nawagáon*).—Petty State in Bundelkhand, Central India. Bounded on the south by the Chhatarpur State; on all other sides, it lies within Hamírpur District of the North-Western Provinces. The area was estimated in 1875 at 16 square miles, the population at 3360 persons, and the revenue at £1037. The population in 1881 was 3365. Lakshman Singh, one of the banditti leaders of Bundelkhand, having been induced to surrender after some resistance on promise of pardon, received in 1807 a *sanad* for 5 villages. On his death in 1808, he was succeeded by his son Jagat Singh. In 1850 it was decided that the State is held merely on a life tenure, and ought to have been resumed on the death of Lakshman Singh. It was continued to Jagat Singh, however, who had been so long in possession, on the distinct understanding that it was to lapse absolutely at his death. At his earnest request, the Government allowed his widow, Thákuráin Larái Dulaiya, to succeed after his death, which occurred in 1867.

Náiháti (*Nyehattee*).—Town and municipality in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Lat. 22° 53′ 50″ N., long. 88° 27′ 40″ E. Station on the Eastern Bengal Railway, 23½ miles from Calcutta. Population (1872) 23,730; (1881) 21,533, namely, males 10,655, and females 10,878. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 18,695; Muhammadans, 2817; and 'others,' 21. Area of town site, 6680 acres. Municipal revenue (1872), £660, 4s.; (1883–84), £1241, of which £1185 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1⅓d. per head. Bench of magistrates, sub-registry office, English and girls' school.

Náikdás, The.—A wild forest tribe found in Panch Maháls District, and in the Rewá Kántha Agency, Bombay Presidency. Of the origin of the Náikdás two stories are told. One, that their ancestors were grooms to the Muhammadan nobles and merchants of Champáner, who took to the forests on the decay of that city towards the close of the sixteenth century. The other states that they are descended from an escort sent by the Rájá of Báglán to the Rájá of Champáner.

The Náikdás are generally small in stature, thin and wiry, remarkably active, capable of enduring fatigue, and not wanting in courage; black in colour, with dark eyes, square faces, and irregular features. Except the chiefs and a few others in good circumstances, who dress like Rájputs or Kolís, the men wear a few yards of dirty ragged cloth round the loins and a second cloth round the head. The women wear over the shoulders a robe or *sári* of a dark blue or red colour, a petticoat, and sometimes a bodice. Except tin and brass ear-rings, the men wear no

ornaments The women wear tin ear rings necklaces of beads shells, and brass bangles and armlets much like those worn by Bh women

Their chief food is Indian corn gruel the well to do sometimes usin coarse rice Except the ass crow and snake few forms of flesh are forbidden the Naikdás They eat large black ants squirrels, and monkeys, even in large towns the sight of a Náikdá is said to be enough to frighten away the monkeys For months in each year after their stock of grain is finished most of them live on wild fruits and roots They are much given to *nahar* spirits and at their festivals drink to excess Though the Naikdás eat carrion and rank among the very lowest classes, their touch though avoided is not held to cause pollution They are labourers and wood cutters A few have bullocks and ploughs, and till regular fields But most of them practise only the rough nomadic tillage burning down the brush wood on the hill sides, and sowing the coarser millets among the ashes

Naikdás show no respect to Brahman and care little for Brahmanical rites, fasts or feasts. The objects of their worship are spirits and ghosts In honour of the spirits whom they invoke by various fantastic names, they fix teak posts in the ground roughly blacking them at the top into something like a human face Over these posts they smear milk or red lead and set round them rows of small clay horses Marriages and deaths are the only occasions of ceremony A widow may marry again, on such occasions there is no ceremony The Náikdas do not intermarry with any other caste Lazy thriftless and fond of drink, they are most of them deeply sunk in debt — See NARUKOT

Náin —Small village in Salon *tahsil*, Rái Bareli District Oudh ituated 20 miles from Rai Bareli town Population (1881) 789, all of hom are Hindus The head quarters of a branch of the Kanhpuria an, reported to be the most turbulent Rájputs in Oudh During tive rule, constant fighting took place between the landholders and king's troops, and in 1857, the Náin *talukdars* joined the rebel diery, and plundered the station of Parshádepur

Naina Kot — Village and municipality in Shakargarh *tahsil*, in dáspur District, Punjab Population (1881) 1452, namely, 984 dus, 449 Muhammadans, 16 Sikhs, and 3 'others,' number of es, 407 A third class municipality, with a revenue in 1882-83 80, expenditure £79 average incidence of taxation, 1s. 1½d. per of the population The village contains a police station (*thana*), ffice, and school

ni Tál —Hill station in Kumáun District, North-Western Lat 29° 22' N long 79° 29' 35" E. Picturesquely situated on nks of a beautiful little lake, which nestles amon x.

the Himálayas. Favourite sanitarium and summer resort of Europeans from the plains. It is also the head-quarters of the Government of the North-Western Provinces during the hot weather. Exquisite scenery among the surrounding hills. Elevation above sea-level, 6409 feet. The population increases largely during the height of the season. In February 1881, the Census returned the population, then at its lowest, at 6576, namely, Hindus, 5639; Muhammadans, 811; and Christians, 126. A special Census taken in September 1880, at the height of the season, returned a total population of 10,054, made up as follows:—Hindus, 6862; Muhammadans, 1748; Europeans, 1348; Eurasians, 34; Native Christians, 57; and 'others,' 5. Municipal income (1883-84), £4955, of which £4194 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 8s. 4d. per head.

On the 18th September 1880, Náini Tál was visited by a violent cyclone and rainstorm, which resulted in a landslip causing the death of 42 Europeans and 105 natives, the total destruction of the public Assembly Rooms, several houses, and property to the value of £20,000. Since this disastrous occurrence, a complete system of drainage and of protective works has been carried out by the municipality at a cost of £20,000, and the station is now in a better and safer condition than it was before the landslip occurred.

The Náini Tál military convalescent depôt, established soon after the Mutiny, has accommodation for about 350 European invalid soldiers.

Nainwah.—Town in Búndi State, Rájputána; situated 30 miles north-east of Búndi town. Nainwah is a town of some consequence, and is surrounded by old fortifications and a ditch kept in fair preservation, and flanked on its northern and western faces by large tanks, from which the fosse can be flooded at pleasure. It contains 20 guns of sizes, chiefly of light calibre; only a few are mounted. Population (1881) 5254, namely, Hindus 4545, and Muhammadans 709.

Najafgarh.—Village in Cawnpur District, North-Western Provinces. Lat. 26° 18′ N., long. 80° 36′ E.; distant from Cawnpur city 16 miles south-east. Population (1881) 1020. Chiefly noticeable for the ruins of a palace, in mixed Indian and European style, built by General Martin, the well-known French adventurer and partisan soldier, who amassed a considerable fortune. Local manufacture of indigo grown in the surrounding country.

Najafgarh Jhíl.—Large straggling lake or marsh in Gurgáon and Delhi Districts, Punjab, lying between 28° 26′ 30″ and 28° 34′ N. lat., and between 76° 56′ and 77° 4′ 30″ E. long. Its length, including its various branches, measures about 46 miles, and when full, in October, it submerges more than 27,000 acres. Torrents from the Gurgáon Hills, and several channels in Delhi District, feed the lake, which is

then drained into the Jamuná (Jumna), by means of an escape chann so as to allow of cultivation on the submerged land Only parti success, however, has attended these operations, owing to the want o sufficient fall. The scene of an important defeat of the rebels b General Nicholson during the Mutiny of 1857

Najíbábád —Northern *tahsil* or Sub-division of Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North Western Provinces, lying between the Ganges and the Garhwál Hills, and comprising the *parganás* of Najibabad, Akbarábád, and Kiratpur Area, 494 square miles, of which 168 are cultivated Population (1872) 141,685, (1881) 133,561, namely, males 71,678, and females 61,883, decrease of population since 1872, 8124, or 5·7 per cent in nine years Classified according to religion the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 86,594, Muhammadans, 46,870, Jains, 121, and 'others,' 21 Of 362 villages composing the *tahsil*, 315 contained less than five hundred inhabitants Government assessment, £22,304, or including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £25,004 In 1883 the *tahsil* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, with 5 police stations (*thanas*), a regular police force of 63 men, a municipal and town police of 55 men, and a village and road police of 302 *chaukidárs*

Najíbábád —Town and municipality in Bijnaur District, North Western Provinces, and head quarters of Najíbábád *tahsil* Situated in lat 29° 36′ 50″ N, and long 78° 23′ 10″ E, on the banks of the Malin Nadi stream, 31 miles south east of Hardwar Population (1881) 17,750, namely, males 9109, and females 8641 Hindus numbered 9535, Muhammadans, 8089, Jains, 114 and Christians, 12 Area of own site, 239 acres Najibábad was founded by the Nawab Najib ud laulá, who erected the handsome square stone fort of Pathargarh, 1 mile st of the town, in 1755 His tomb is a handsome building, surrounded numerous apartments, and the Kothi Mubárak Banyad, now used a rest house, remains as a monument to him within the town To north stands the tomb of his brother, Jahángir Khan The town retains many a memorial of Pathán magnificence, now put to ble uses A *baradari* or twelve doored pavilion, probably a summer e of the old rulers of the town, was a few years ago said to be as a slaughter house The thoroughfares are mostly paved with and the Sanitary Commissioner reported in 1875 that the 'fine and durable cleanly roadways would be a credit to any n the Province' The principal place of business is a paved at the intersection of four cross roads The public buildings se the usual Sub divisional courts and offices, police station, ary, post office, and Government school Large through traffic r from the Bhábar forests to the north Manufactures of brass nd iron work, matchlocks, blankets, cotton cl

Imports of grain; exports of sugar. Markets are held twice a week. Municipal revenue (1883-84), £1812, of which £1632 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 10⅛d. per head of population.

Náko.—Village in Bashahr (Bassahir) State, Punjab. Lat. 31° 52′ N., long. 78° 40′ E. (Thornton); lies in the Kunáwar Hills, 1 mile from the left bank of the Li, or river of Spiti. Chiefly noticeable as being the highest inhabited place in the principality. Elevation above sea-level, 11,850 feet.

Nakodar.—South-western *tahsíl* of Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying along the bank of the Sutlej (Satlaj), between 30° 56′ 30″ and 31° 15′ N. lat., and between 75° 6′ 15″ and 75° 39′ E. long. Area, 342 square miles, with 306 towns and villages, 30,183 houses, and 44,530 families. Total population, 194,069, namely, males 105,424, and females 88,645. Muhammadans form the bulk of the population, numbering 118,617; Hindus, 58,590; Sikhs, 16,705; Jains, 154; and Christians, 3. Average area under cultivation for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82, 206,532 acres, the principal crops being the following—wheat, 76,376 acres; gram, 25,444 acres; Indian corn, 22,117 acres; *joár*, 16,673 acres; *moth*, 16,794 acres; sugar-cane, 12,224 acres; barley, 9174 acres; cotton, 8872 acres; rice, 1319 acres; and tobacco, 1091 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £28,654. The administrative staff consists of 1 *tahsíldár* and 1 *munsif*, presiding over 1 criminal and 2 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police, 35 men; besides a village watch of 272 *chaukídárs*.

Nakodar.—Town and municipality in Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Nakodar *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 31° 7′ 30″ N., long. 75° 31′ E., about 15 miles from Jálandhar town. Population (1881) 8486, namely, Muhammadans, 5117; Hindus, 3193; Sikhs, 73; Jains, 100; and 'others,' 3. Number of houses, 1196. Nakodar is said to have originally belonged to Hindu Kambohs, but it has been held during historical times by a family of Musalmán Rájputs, on whom it was conferred in *jágír* during the reign of Jahángír. They were ousted early in the Sikh period by Sardár Tára Singh, Ghaiba, who built a fort, and made himself master of the surrounding territory. Seized by Ranjít Singh in 1816. *Tahsíli*, police station, post-office, dispensary, *sarái;* grant-in-aid vernacular school, and several indigenous boys' and girls' schools. Brisk trade in grain, tobacco, and sugar. The town is well paved, and has a thriving appearance. Outside the town are two large and handsome tombs, dating from the reign of the Emperor Jahángír. The later tomb, bearing date 1021 Hijra, is the burial-place of the religious adviser of Sháh Jahán, but it is not known who is buried in the earlier tomb. Both are embellished on the

ornaments The women wear tin ear rings, necklaces of beads o shells, and brass bangles and armlets, much like those worn by Bhi women

Their chief food is Indian corn gruel the well to do sometimes using coarse rice Except the ass crow and snake few forms of flesh are forbidden the Naikdas They eat large black ants squirrels, and monkeys even in large towns the sight of a Náikdá is said to be enough to frighten away the monkeys For months in each year, after their stock of grain is finished most of them live on wild fruits and roots They are much given to *mahua* spirits and at their festivals drink to excess Though the Naikdás eat carrion and rank among the very lowest classes their touch though avoided is not held to cause pollution They are labourers and wood-cutters A few have bullocks and ploughs and till regular fields But most of them practise only the rough nomadic tillage burning down the brushwood on the hill sides, and sowing the coarser millets among the ashes

Naikdas show no respect to Bráhmans and care little for Bráhmanical rites, fasts, or feasts. The objects of their worship are spirits and ghosts In honour of the spirits whom they invoke by various fantastic names, they fix teak posts in the ground, roughly blacking them at the top into something like a human face Over these posts they smear milk or red lead and set round them rows of small clay horses Marriages and deaths are the only occasions of ceremony A widow may marry again on such occasions there is no ceremony The Naikdas do not intermarry with any other caste Lazy, thriftless, and fond of drink, they are most of them deeply sunk in debt. — *See* NARUKOT

Náin —Small village in Salon *tahsil*, Rái Bareli District, Oudh, tuated 20 miles from Rai Bareli town Population (1881) 789, all of hom are Hindus The head-quarters of a branch of the Kanhpuria n, reported to be the most turbulent Rájputs in Oudh During ive rule, constant fighting took place between the landholders and kings troops and in 1857, the Náin *talukdárs* joined the rebel iery, and plundered the station of Parshádepur

aina Kot — Village and municipality in Shakargarh *tahsíl*, in dáspur District, Punjab Population (1881) 1452, namely, 984 us, 449 Muhammadans, 16 Sikhs, and 3 'others,' number of s, 407 A third class municipality, with a revenue in 1880-81 o, expenditure, £79, average incidence of taxation, 1s 1¼d. per f the population The village contains a police station (*thana*), fice, and school

u Tál —Hill station in Kumáun District, North Western Pro- Lat 29° 22' N, long 79° 29' 35" E. Picturesquely situated on ks of a beautiful little lake, which nestles among the

Bombay Presidency; situated 56 miles east by north of Kaládgi, in lat. 16° 14′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 19′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 4293. Three temples with four inscriptions, one of which contains the name of the Western Chalukya King Jagadekamalla II. (1138–1150). In 1802, Nálatwár was plundered by the chief of Shorápur in the Nizám's Dominions.

Nalbaná (literally '*The Reed Forest*').—Island in the CHILKA LAKE, Bengal. Lat. 19° 41′ 30″ N., long. 85° 20′ E. About 5 miles in circumference, and nowhere more than a few inches above the level of the water. The island is entirely uninhabited, but is regularly visited by parties of thatchers, for the sake of its abundant growth of reeds and high grasses.

Nalbárí.—Trading village and police station in Kámrúp District, Assam. Lat. 26° 25′ 55″ N., long. 91° 27′ 45″ E. Situated in that portion of the District north of the Brahmaputra, and on the south bank of the Noá Nadí, near the road leading to Barpetá, and about 30 miles from Gauhátí town. A bi-weekly market is held here, and in the cold weather the Bhutiás bring down ponies, blankets, madder, etc., for sale or barter.

Nalbárí.—Village in the District of Darrang, Assam; about 20 miles north of the Sub-divisional town of Mangaldái. Containing the *golás* or storehouses of several Márwárí merchants, who trade with the Cacharí population.

Nalchha.—Ruined town and head-quarters of Nalchha *parganá*, in Dhár State, Central India; situated in lat. 22° 25′ N., and long. 75° 28′ E., on the route from Mhow (Mau) to Mandu, 27 miles south-west of the former and 7 north of the latter. The situation—on the southern verge of the rich open table-land of Málwá—is very picturesque; a small stream runs near the town, which is also well supplied with water from tanks and wells. *Bázár.* Some of the ruins are very fine. Thornton says that when Sir John Malcolm converted one of the palatial ruins into a summer residence, a tigress and her cubs were driven out of one of the apartments.

Nalchití.—Municipal village in Bákarganj District, Bengal; situated on the river of the same name, in lat. 22° 37′ 55″ N., and long. 90° 19′ 10″ E. Seat of a large trade; chief exports—rice and betel-nuts; imports—salt, tobacco, oil, and sugar. Population (1881) 2692; municipal income (1883-84), £178.

Naldrúg.—Fortified town in Haidarábád (Nizám's Dominions), Deccan. Chief town of Naldrúg District. Population (1881) 3182. The following account of a visit made to the fort in 1853, by Colonel Meadows Taylor, is taken from *The Story of My Life* (pp. 286, 287):—'The fort of Naldrúg was one of the most interesting places I had ever seen. It enclosed the surface of a knoll or plateau of basalt rock,

which jutted out into the valley or ravine of the small river Bori from the main plateau of the country, and was almost level. The sides of this knoll were sheer precipices of basalt, here and there showing distinct columnar and prismatic formation, and varying from 50 to 200 *feet in height, the edge of the plateau being 200 feet more or less above* the river, which flowed at the base of the precipice on two sides of the fort. Along the crest of the cliff, on three sides, run the fortifications—bastions and curtains alternately, some of the former being very firmly built of cut and dressed basalt, and large enough to carry heavy guns, and the parapets of the machicolated curtains were everywhere loopholed for musketry. On the west side the promontory joined the main plateau by a somewhat contracted neck, also strongly fortified by a high rampart, with very roomy and massive bastions, below it a fausse braie, with the same, then a broad, deep, dry ditch, cut for the most part out of the basalt itself, a counterscarp, about 20 or 25 feet high, with a covered way, and beyond it a glacis and esplanade, up to the limits of the town.

'*The entire circumference of the enceinte* might have been about a mile and a half, and the garrison in former times must have been very large, for nearly the whole of the interior was covered by ruined walls, and had been laid out as a town with a wide street running up the centre. All the walls and bastions were in perfect repair, and the effect of the fort outside was not only grim and massive, but essentially picturesque.

'Naldrug held a memorable place in local history. Before the Musalmán invasion in the 14th century, it belonged to a local Rajá, who may have been a feudal vassal of the great Rájas of the Chalukya dynasty, 250 to 1200 A.D., whose capital was Kalyáni, about 40 miles distant, but I never could trace its history with any certainty, and during the Hindu period it was only traditional. The Báhmani dynasty, *1351 to 1480 A.D., protected their dominions to the west by a line of* massive forts, of which Naldrug was one, and it was believed that the former defences, which were little more than mud walls, were replaced by them with fortifications of stone. Afterwards, on the division of the Báhmani kingdom, in 1480 A.D., Naldrúg fell to the lot of the Adil Sháhi kings of Bijápur, and they, in their turn, greatly increased and strengthened its defences. It was often a point of dissension between the Adil Shahi and the Nizám Sháhi potentates—lying, as it did, upon the nominal frontier between Bijápur and Ahmadnagar—and was besieged by both in turn, as the condition of the walls on the southern face bore ample testimony, as well from the marks of cannon balls as from breaches which had afterwards been filled up. In 1558, Alí Adíl Sháh visited Naldrúg, and again added to its fortifications, rebuilt the *western face, and constructed an enormous cavalier near the eastern*

end, which was upwards of 90 feet high, with several bastions on the edges of the cliff; but his greatest work was the erection of a stone dam across the river Bori, which, by retaining the water above it, afforded the garrison an unlimited supply.'

The District of Naldrúg was one of those surrendered by the Nizám to the British Government under the treaty of 1853. It was restored in 1860.

Nalgangá.—River in Buldáná District, Berár. The Nalgangá rises near Buldáná town, runs past Malkápur (lat. 20° 53′ N., long. 76° 15′ E.) to the Wagar river, which joins the Púrna. In the hot season, the Nalganga dwindles to a mere chain of pools.

Nalgún.—Pass in Bashahr (Bassahir) State, Punjab, over the range of mountains bounding Kunáwar to the south. Lat. 31° 19′ N., long. 78° 17′ E. (Thornton). A stream of the same name flows north-east from the pass to join the Baspa. Elevation above sea-level, 14,891 feet.

Nalia.—Petty State of the Sankhara Mehwás, in Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency. Area, 1 square mile. Held jointly by two proprietors, called *thákurs*. The revenue is estimated at £74; and tribute of £3, 14s. is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda.

Naliya.—Town in the Abdasa Sub-division of Cutch State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 23° 18′ N., long. 68° 54′ E. Population (1881) 5266. Hindus numbered 2386; Muhammadans, 1937; and Jains, 943. Naliya is one of the most thriving towns of Cutch; walled and well built. It has a class of prosperous traders, being the residence of retired native merchants who have made their fortunes in Bombay or Zanzibár.

Nalkeri.—State forest in Coorg. Teak and other woods are cut here and carted to Mysore. Area, 40·2 square miles.

Nálknád.—Village in the territory of Coorg, and at one time the capital of the State under Rájá Dodda Víra Rájendra, the hero of Coorg independence. Lat. 12° 14′ N., long. 75° 42′ E. Distance from Merkára, the Coorg capital, 24 miles. The palace, built in 1794, is now partly used for public offices. Close by is a handsome little pavilion, erected by the Rájá in 1796 for the celebration of his second marriage with Mahádevamma. Behind towers the majestic mountain of Tadiándamol, in the Western Gháts.

Nallamaláis ('*Black Hills*').—Range of hills in Karnúl District, Madras Presidency; situated between lat. 14° 43′ and 16° 18′ N., and between long. 78° 43′ and 79° 36′ E., stretching from the Kistna river to the southern frontier of Karnúl District. The continuation of the Nallamaláis, southward in the Cuddapah District, is known as the Lankamalá range. The average height of the Nallamaláis is between 1500 to 2000 feet above sea-level. The greatest elevation is attained by a

detached peak called Bairenikonda, 3133 feet high, situated eastward of the main range The highest point in the main range is the Gundla Brahmeswaram Hill 3049 feet The Gundlakama, Zampaleru, and Paleru rivers rise in this hill, near a ruined temple of Brahmeswaram The second highest peak in the main range is Errachelema The eastern slopes rise for the most part almost abruptly along the western base of the hills runs a *tarai* or zone of jungle from 5 to 10 miles broad

Geology —The Geological Department have named one of the four Sub-divisions of the large Cuddapah system of rocks over 20 000 feet in thickness, 'the Nallamalái group This group consists of Cumbum slates superimposed upon the Bairenikonda quartzites The slates, so called, are not sufficiently regular in cleavage or firm in texture to be of any economic use Under the term quartzite are included various kinds of altered detrital rock The railway cuttings have disclosed a fine serviceable sandstone in the main ridge Under former Governments lead and diamond mines were worked near the western entrance of the Nandikanama Pass Recent experiments with the lead ore have shown that it contains a high percentage of silver 'Wootz' or Indian steel is manufactured in villages near the western base of the southern portion of the range from ore quarried out of the main ridge Flint weapons of rude form have been found east of the range

Fauna —The fauna of the Nallamalais is abundant and varied Game includes tigers bears, leopards, *sambhar*, spotted and rib faced deer, hill antelope, gazelle wild hog, pea fowl jungle fowl partridge, quail, and imperial and green pigeons There are also two or three kinds of wild cats, porcupines and Malabar squirrels

Inhabitants —The only inhabitants of the Nallamaláis are an aboriginal race, the Chenchus in number about 2000 and a broken tribe of about 50 Yanadis The Chenchus are savages in the hunting stage The men wear nothing but a narrow strip of cotton cloth round the loins, the women are clothed like Hindus, but more scantily A Chenchu man, who has not lost his primitive habits always carries an axe slung in his girdle, and bows and arrows in his hand Recently several of the tribe have been employed as police and watchmen. They are an inoffensive people, easily managed by judicious treatment, but also easily roused to violence, and traditionally addicted to petty theft The Chenchus live in small hamlets, along the base and lower spurs of the hills Their huts are of primitive but neat construction, sometimes dome shaped, sometimes resembling waggon tilts Their food is roots and berries, tamarinds (pulp and stone crushed into a mass and mixed with wood ash), milk, etc., but they also eat grain, which they obtain honestly or by theft At the foot of the

Birupa river The Naltigiri chain has two peaks of unequal height, and bears little vegetation, except a few valuable sandal wood trees, the only ones found in Orissa Naltigiri is famous for its Buddhist remains, some of which are in a fair state of preservation —(For details, see *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol xviii pp 94–96)

Námakal—*Táluk* in Salem District, Madras Presidency. Area, 715 square miles The area liable to revenue is distributed as follows —Government villages, 292,175 acres, *mittah* and *shrotriem* villages, 221,636 acres The extent actually under cultivation in *rayatwari* villages is 104,567 acres, paying £18,959 *Kambu* on dry, and rice on wet lands form the staple cultivation, but other grain crops, as *varágu*, *ragi*, and *cholam*, are largely grown Irrigation is carried on from the Kaveri (Cauvery) channels and small rivers, and from 163 tanks, 80 minor reservoirs, and 6303 wells Irrigated area, 10,551 acres, assessed at £8167 Population (1881) 254,577, namely, 122,365 males and 132,212 females, occupying 53,949 houses, scattered over 3 towns and 353 villages Hindus numbered 250,315, Muhammadans, 3386, Christians, 875, and 'others,' 1 The north eastern portions of Namakal *taluk* are mountainous, and its south western area is flat The general aspect is dreary and uninteresting In 1883 the *taluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, police circles (*thanás*), 11, regular police, 89 men Land revenue, £34,607.

Námakal.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency Lat 11° 13' 15" N, long 78° 12' 40" E Population (1881) 5147, number of houses, 1043 Hindus numbered 4540, Muhammadans, 581, and Christians, 26 Namakal is the head quarters of Námakal *táluk*, and the residence of a Deputy Collector It is built at the foot of a fortified rock (the Durgam), which rises 300 feet above the plain, and is very difficult of access This citadel was of some importance in the Mysore campaigns, and its outer walls are still in good preservation It was captured by the English in 1768, only to be lost again a few months later to Haidar Namakal is held in much honour by Hindus Local tradition marks it as the abode of Vishnu The weavers of Námakal form a numerous community

Namal (*Nimal*)—Town in Mianwáli *tahsil*, Bannu (Bunnoo) District, Punjab, situated on the eastern slope of the Salt Range, in lat 32° 40' 15" N, and long 71° 51' E Namal is the chief town of the Pakkar *iláka* or estate, a wild tract of country much intersected by ravines. The village lands are irrigated by several hill torrents, which unite close to the town to form the Wáhi *nala* The population of Namal was returned in 1868 at 5010, but it is not given separately in the Census of 1881. *Dak* bungalow Near Namal are two curious structures shaped like sentry boxes, and supposed to be dolmens.

Nandarthan (or *Nagardhán*).—Decayed town in Nagpur District, Central Provinces, situated in lat 21° 21′ N, and long 79° 21′ E, 4½ miles from Rámtek, just off the old Kámthí (Kamptee) road Population (1881) 2614, namely, Hindus, 2135, Kabírpanthis, 255, Muhammadans, 122, Jains, 46, and aboriginal religions, 56 Formerly a cavalry station of the Nagpur Rájás Outside the old castle an action was fought when the British besieged Nágpur in December 1817 The school is well attended.

Nan daw.—Small pagoda in Sandoway District, Arakan Division, Lower Burma, situated on a hill about half a mile north of Sandoway town, and said to have been built by Min Bra in 763 A D (two years later than the neighbouring An daw) to contain a rib of Gautama. Festivals held here in March, June and October

Nander.—Town in the Nizam s Dominions Haidarábád (Deccan) —*See* NANDAIR

Nandgad.—Town in Belgáum District Bombay Presidency —*See* NANDIGAD

Nándgáon.—Sub division of Násik District Bombay Pres dency Area, 437 square miles, containing 88 villages Population (1881) 30,399, namely, 15,535 males and 14,864 females, occupying 5664 houses. Hindus numbered 25 884, Muhammadans, 1794, and 'others,' 2721 Land revenue (1882) £3386 The Sub division, situated in the south east corner of the District is bounded on the north by Malegaon Sub division, on the east by Khándesh District and Nizam s territory, on the south by Yeola and on the west by Chandor Sub-division The north and west are rich and level, but the south and east are furrowed by ravines and deep stream beds The eastern half is thickly covered with *anjan* trees (Hardwickia binata, *Roxb*), the western half is open, with a sparse growth of bushes. Climate dry and healthy Water supply abundant, the chief rivers being the Pánjan and the Maniád The north eastern line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway runs through the Sub division In 1880–81 there were 3564 holdings, with an average area of 32 acres, and an average rental of £1, 19s 3d, incidence of land tax, about 4s 7½d per head of the whole population In 1880–81, of 107,761 acres held for tillage, 13,002 were fallow or under grass Of the remaining 94,759 acres, 96 were twice cropped. Of 94 855 acres, the area under actual cultivation, grain crops occupied 78,458 acres (59 555 under *bajra*, Pennisetum typhoideum, *Rich*), pulses occupied 4507 acres, oil seeds, 7390 acres, fibres, [illegible] acres (3958 under cotton), and miscellaneous crops, 511 acres. In 1884 the Sub-division contained 2 criminal courts, 1 police circle (*thána*), 34 regular policemen, 125 village watchmen

Nándgáon.—The chief town of Nándgáon [illegible]

festival, is attended by 50,000 persons, and lasts for 9 days The best bullocks bred in the country are brought here for sale, to the number of 10,000 For many years prizes were distributed by Government on this occasion 'The spirit of competition was most gratifying, and no owners in any part of the world could have been more eager to attract attention than the *ráyats* at Nandi.' As much as £100 is sometimes offered for a pair of draught bullocks Since 1874, the Government Cattle Show has been transferred to Bangalore

Nandial. — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Karnul (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency Area, about 894 square miles Population (1881) 78,282, *namely*, 39,688 males and 38,594 females, dwelling in 1 town and 91 villages, containing 17,143 houses Hindus numbered 65,705, Muhammadans, 10,935, and Christians, 1642 In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, police circles (*thanas*), 14, regular police, 102 men Land revenue, £18 806

Nandiál (from *Nandi*, 'The Bull, the form in which Siva is worshipped in the Ceded Districts and Mysore) —Town in Karnul (Kurnool) District, Madras Presidency Lat 15° 29' 30" N, long 78° 31' 40" E Population (1881) 8907, occupying 2005 houses Hindus numbered 5749, Muhammadans, 3112, and Christians, 46 Nandial is the head quarters of Nandial *taluk*, and also of a Deputy Collector and other European officers It contains 9 Sivaite pagodas, and is a prosperous place, surrounded by highly cultivated fields

Nandialampett (*Nandial*) —Town in Cuddapah (Kadapa) District, Madras Presidency Lat 14° 43' 30" N, long 78° 52' 15" E. Population (1881) 3110, number of houses, 876 Nandialampett was formerly a place of some importance, but now is only a moderate sized agricultural village

Nandidrug (*Nundydroog*) —Division in the State of Mysore, comprising the three Districts of BANGALORE, KOLAR, and TUMKUR, each of which see separately Area of Nandidrúg Division, 8212 square miles, 7728 towns and villages, 276,921 occupied and 68,091 unoccupied houses Population (1871) 2,073,547, (1881) 1,543 451, namely, 762,266 males and 781,185 females Number of persons per square mile, 188, towns and villages per square mile, 0 9, occupied houses per square mile, 31 4, and persons per occupied house, 5 5 Hindus numbered 1,428,651, Muhammadans, 93 385, Christians, 21,389, Parsis, 11, Buddhists, 9, and Sikhs, 6 The Division was formed in 1863, by the addition of Tumkúr to what had been previously known as the Bangalore Division

Nandidrug (literally '*The Hill Fort of Nandi*,' the sacred bull of Siva) —Fortified hill in Kolár District, Mysore State, 31 miles north of Bangalore, 4810 feet above sea level Lat 13° 22' 17" N, long 77° 43' 38" E. The summit forms an extensive plateau, in the centre of

centre, the chief imports are areca nuts, cocoa nuts, cocoa nut oil, dates, and salt These articles are bought in exchange, from native Christian traders of Goa, for wheat and other grain Not far from the town is the ruined fort of Pratápgarh, built by Malla Sarja Desai of Kittur in 1809 Nandigarh contains a post-office and three schools, weekly market on Wednesdays

Nandikanama.—Pass in Cumbum (Kambham) *tāluk*, Karnul (Kurnool) District, Madras, lying in lat. 15° 23 30" N, and long 78° 48 7" E Carries the main road from Karnul to Cumbum and the east coast at Ongole over the Nallamalai hills height, about 1800 feet above sea level The Bellary Kistna State Railway, now in course of construction, intersects this road near the crest Formerly lead and diamond mines were worked near the entrance of the pass; recent experiments with the lead ore have shown that it [illegible] a high percentage of silver The pass is much used for the [illegible] of salt, and was utilized during the recent famine for [illegible] from the coast to Karnul

Nandikotkur—*Tāluk* of Karnul District, Madras [illegible] Area, 1323 square miles Population (1881) 72,7[illegible], [illegible] males and 35,866 females, occupying 14,761 hou[illegible] Hindus numbered 62,348, Muhammadans, 977[illegible] In 1885 the *tāluk* contained 2 criminal courts [illegible] 10, regular police, 82 men Land revenue, £19,[illegible]

Nandikotkur—Town in Karnul (Kurnool) [illegible] dency Lat. 15° 52' N, long 78° 18 21" E [illegible] number of houses, 636 Head-quarters of [illegible]

Nandod—Capital of Rájpipla State, Bomba[illegible] 54 N, long 73° 34' E Situated about [illegible] Surat, on a rising ground in a bend of the [illegible] (1872) 9768, (1881) 10,777, namely, [illegible] Hindus numbered 7409, Muhamma[illegible] Christians, 2, and 'others,' 1736 [illegible] are said to have driven the Nandod [illegible] the head-quarters of one of their [illegible] coin The chief, though he had [illegible] power (1730) recovered most of [illegible] capital from Rajpipla to Nandod [illegible]

Nandora.—Town in P[illegible] situated 3 miles north of the G[illegible] (1881) 2953, namely, 1881 H[illegible] large *bazar* of Lalganj, at wh[illegible] is sold annually Village sc[illegible]

Nandura—Town in [illegible] Nágpur branch of the Gre[illegible]

portion of this now finds its way eastward to the north east line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway The exports are cotton, linseed, wheat, gram, and grass oil, imports—salt, cocoa nuts, and spices of all kinds. The staple industry is the extraction of oil from a grass known as *roya*, about 100 stills being at work This oil has long been held in repute as a remedy for rheumatism Nandurbár is one of the oldest towns in Khándesh It was obtained by Mubárak, chief of Khándesh, from the ruler of Gujarát in 1536 In 1665 it was a place of considerable prosperity, renowned for its grapes and melons In 1666, an English factory was established at Nandurbar, in 1670 it had become so important a trading centre, that the English factory was removed hither from Ahmadabád It subsequently suffered in common with the rest of Khándesh during the troubles of Baji Rao s rule and when it came into the possession of the British Government in 1818, the town was more than half deserted. It contains many old mosques and remains of ancient buildings According to local tradition Nandurbar was founded by Nand Gauli, in whose family it remained until wrested from them by the Muhammadans under Samin moin ud din Chishti assisted by the Pir Sayyid Ala ud din

Nanenwar — Mountain in Kashmír (Cashmere) State, Northern India Lat 34° 31′ N, long 74° 50′ E (Thornton) One of the lofty range bounding the Kashmír valley on the north east Over its sides lies the Bandarpur Pass into Tibet, at an elevation of about 11 000 feet above sea level.

Nangám.—Petty State of the Sankhera Mehwás in Rewa Kántha, Bombay Presidency Area, 3 square miles, with 3 villages Held jointly by four proprietors entitled *thákurs* Estimated revenue in 1882, £217, tribute of £129 is paid to the Gáekwár of Baroda The estate is very poor, the shareholders being little more than common husbandmen The people are chiefly Bhils raising only the coarser and more easily grown crops

Nangambákam.—Suburb of Madras —*See* MADRAS CITY

Nanguneri.—*Táluk* or Sub division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency Area 665 square miles. Population (1881) 174 347, namely, 84,243 males and 90,104 females, dwelling in 227 villages (mostly hamlets), and occupying 37,149 houses Hindus number 136 823, Muhammadans, 8992, Christians, 28,520, and 'others,' 12 Nanguneri *táluk* occupies the whole of the extreme south of the District The soil is composed of red clay, loam, and sand, excepting a narrow strip parallel with the sea, where white sand prevails Palmyra groves occupy the east and south of the *táluk*, from February to August the juice, which flows from the flower spathe cut across, is boiled down to brown sugar before it has time to ferment In the centre of the *táluk* are many tanks, both rain fed and

supplied by channels from the mountain streams; innumerable wells, under which small patches of two to three acres are cultivated; and dry cultivation, poor and interrupted by fallows sometimes for two years out of three. The great range of hills bordering the *táluk* on the west is strikingly picturesque, rising to 5000 feet above sea-level, the tops densely covered with forest. Several coffee estates nestle in the more sheltered valleys of the higher elevations. In 1883, Nánguneri *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 14; regular police, 94 men. Land revenue, £32,531.

Nánguneri.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 8° 29' 20" N., long. 77° 41' E. Population (1881) 4114, namely, Hindus, [illegible]; Muhammadans, 74; and Christians, 156. Number of houses, 1257. Nánguneri is the head-quarters of Nánguneri *táluk*, and has a richly endowed temple. Weekly fair.

Nanjangad.—*Táluk* in Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 176 square miles, of which 104 are cultivated. Population (1871) 64,535; (1881) 65,451, namely, 33,597 males and 31,854 females. Hindus numbered 63,669; Muhammadans, 1777; and Christians, 5. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 criminal court; police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 55 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 377. Total revenue, £12,073.

Nanjangad ('*Town of the Swallower of Poison*,' so called from one of the attributes of Siva).—Town in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 7' 20" N., and long. 76° 44' E., on both banks of the Kabbani and Gundal streams, 12 miles by road south of Mysore city. Population (1881) 5202, namely, 4680 Hindus, 521 Muhammadans, and 1 Christian. Head-quarters of the Nanjangad *táluk*. Said to be identical with the city of Nagarapura, founded during the 8th century by a king from the north, and shortly afterwards taken by a Chola monarch. Now celebrated for the temple of Siva, under his name of Nanjandeswara. The present building, which has superseded a smaller one of remote antiquity, was erected by Karachúri Nanja Raja, the *diwán* or prime minister of Mysore about 1740, and embellished by the *diwán* Purnaiya. It is 385 feet long by 160 feet broad, and supported by 147 columns. Some of the figures are carved with great elaboration and delicacy. The shrine receives an annual allowance from the State of £2020. Car festivals are held monthly on the day of the full moon, two of which, in March and November, are attended by thousands of devotees from all parts of Southern India. About a mile from Nanjangad is a fine bungalow, attached to the Mysore Residency, near which is a stone bridge over the Kabbani, constructed 100 years ago. An extensive tope of magnificent and shady trees extends from the bungalow to a distance of 1 mile along the right bank of the Kabbani. It has been proposed to connect

Nanjangad with Mysore by railway, and the line is now being surveyed

Nanjarájpatná.—*Táluk* or Sub division of Coorg, South India. Area, 264 square miles, number of villages, 122, number of houses, 4909 Population (1881) 26,984, namely, 26,018 Hindus, 801 Muhammadans, 4 Jains, and 161 Christians Included among the Hindus are 5383 native Coorgs Nanjarájpatná occupies the north east of Coorg, and is bounded on the east by the Kaveri (Cauvery) river Teak and sandal wood are found in the jungles In the open country towards the Kaveri, 'dry' grains, such as *ragi*, *avare*, and *tavare*, are cultivated, and also gram, coriander, and a little tobacco Some fine coffee estates have been opened out near Jambur and Sonwárpet on the Merkára Kodlipet road Head quarters of *táluk*, Fraserpet

Nannilam—*Táluk* or Sub division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency Area 279 square miles Population (1881) 220,202, namely, 104,052 males and 116 150 females, dwelling in 397 villages, and occupying 41,143 houses Hindus numbered 202,317, Muhammadans, 11,877, Christians, 5967 and 'others,' 41 In 1883, the *taluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, police circles, 7, and regular police, 70 men Land revenue £75,886 The head quarters of the *taluk* is at the village of Nannilam, about 15 miles north west of Negapatam Population (1881) 2851

Nánpárá—*Tahsil* or Sub division of Bahraich District, Oudh, situated between 27° 39′ and 28° 24 N lat., and between 81° 5 and 81° 52 E long Bounded on the north and east by the State of Nepal, on the south by Bahraich and Kaisarganj *tahsils*, and on the west by Nighásan *tahsil* Area, 1037 square miles, of which 449 are under cultivation Population (1872) 239 459, (1881) 270,721, namely, males 141,999, and females 128,722, total increase since 1872, 31,262, or 13 1 per cent in nine years, average density of population, 261 persons per square mile Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 219 810, Muhammadans, 50,549, and 'others,' 362 Number of towns and villages, 547, of which 350 contained in 1881 less than 500 inhabitants This *tahsil* comprises the 3 *parganas* of Nánpará, Charda, and Dharmánpur, and a considerable portion of it is covered with Government reserved forests Revenue of the *tahsil*, £33,429 In 1884, Nánpárá contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, 5 police circles (*thánás*), a regular police force of 80 men, and 762 village *chaukidárs*

Nánpárá—*Pargana* in Bahraich District, Oudh, bounded on the north by Nepál, on the east by Charda, on the south by Bahraich, and on the west by Dharmanpur and the Gogra river Area, 523 square miles, extreme length, 38 miles, breadth, 24 miles The eastern

portion lies high, and forms part of the watershed of the two river systems of the Rápti and the Gogra. The western half is a portion of the basin of the latter river and its affluent the Sarju, and has been furrowed in all directions by old beds of these streams in their wanderings over the country. This section is peculiarly fertile, having a rich yet light alluvial soil, which requires no irrigation and but little labour to yield the finest crops. The *parganá* is not so well wooded as its neighbours to the south, only 1·71 per cent. being grove land. The proximity of the jungle tracts, however, in some degree compensates for this drawback. There is an immense proportion of cultivable waste land, which covers 213 square miles, as compared with 257 square miles of cultivation, in a total area of 523 square miles. Irrigation there is none, except in the higher villages to the east, where, as in Bahraich *parganá*, there is every facility for irrigation, the water lying near the surface. Population (1881) 168,942, namely, 88,587 males and 80,355 females. Principal crops —barley, rice, and Indian corn. Of the 311 villages comprising the *parganá*, 306 are held under *tálukdári* tenure. The main road from Bahraich to Nepálganj passes through Nánpárá town, and second-class roads run from Nánpárá to Motipur (16 miles), to Bhingá (29 miles), and to Khairighát (12 miles). Government vernacular town school at Nánpárá, and 8 village schools. Two post-offices and two police stations. The nucleus of the present estate of the Rájá of Nánpárá, comprising nearly the whole of the *parganá*, consisted of a grant of 5 villages to an Afghán officer named Rasúl Khán, who was commissioned by Shán Jahán to coerce the Banjáras, a turbulent tribe who had long disturbed the peace of the country. The family gradually extended their possessions; the present Rajá is the seventh in descent from the founder, Rasúl Khán. Nánpárá was only constituted a distinct *parganá* after the British annexation of Oudh, having previously been nearly all included in *parganá* Bahraich.

Nánpárá.—Town in Bahraich District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Nánpárá *tahsíl* and *parganá*; situated in lat. 27° 52′ N., and long. 81° 32′ 45″ E., 22 miles north of Bahraich town, on the road to Nepálganj. Tradition states that the town was founded by Nidhái, an oil-seller, whence the name Nidháipurwa, corrupted into Nádpárá, and latterly to Nánpárá. About 1630, an Afghán officer in the service of Sháh Jahán, having received a grant of this and four other villages, laid the foundation of the present important estate. Population (1869) 6818; (1881) 7351, namely, Muhammadans, 4643; Hindus, 2706; and 'others,' 2. Area of town site, 279 acres. Municipal revenue (1876–77), £242; (1883–84), £556, of which £370 was derived from octroi; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head of population. Considerable traffic in grain, timber, and firewood. A valuable trade with

Nepal passes through Nánpára, the imports being returned at about £33,000, and the exports at £20,000 in value The principal buildings are the Rájá's residence, 5 Hindu temples, 4 mosques, the *tahsíli*, police station, *sarai*, and school. Nanpárá is a flourishing town, and now that it is a station on the newly-opened railway from Patná, the place will doubtless rapidly grow in importance

Nansári —Small chiefship in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces, 9 miles south east of Kámthá, comprising 9 villages, and occupying an area of 8599 acres of which 5878 are under cultivation Population (1881) 4771. The chief is a Brahman, descended from an official family attached to the late Nágpur Government A large weekly market for cattle is held at Kaltipar, on this estate

Nanta—Village in Kotah State, Rajputana. Population (1881) 1859 Situated in lat. 25° 12 N, and long 75° 51 E, on the route from Kotah town to Bundi (Boondee), 5 miles north west from Kotah and 19 south east from Bundi The palace of Zalim Singh, formerly minister of the Kotah State, is situated here and Nanta was at one time a flourishing town, when full of Zálim Singh s numerous adherents The place is now little more than an agricultural village, and the palace (a fine specimen of a Rájput baronial residence) and its gardens are falling into decay

Naodwar.—Forest reserve in the north of Darrang District, Assam, lying between the Bhorolí and Bar Dikrái rivers, and bounded north by the Aká Hills. Area, 82 square miles

Naogaon—District of Assam —*See* NOWGONG

Naogáon—Sub-division of Rájsháhí District, Bengal, comprising the three police circles (*thanás*) of Naogáon, Manda, and Panchpur Area, 603 square miles, with 1362 villages, and 43,062 houses Total population, 268,579, namely, males 134,435, and females 134,144 Average density of population, 445 4 persons per square mile Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Muhammadans, 205,361, Hindus, 63,204, and Christians, 14 The Sub division contains 1 criminal court, a regular police force of 51 men, and a village watch or rural police of 640 *chaukidars*

Naogaon—Village in Rájsháhí District, Bengal, and head quarters of Naogaon Sub-division, situated in lat 24° 45′ 30″ N, and long 88° 58 30 E, on the west bank of the river Jamuná Important as the centre of the *gánja* (hemp) cultivation of Rajsháhi, it is from this small tract of country that nearly the whole of India is supplied with the narcotic Population under 5000

Naorangpur.—Town in Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 1467. Houses, 321.

Napoklu.—*Kásba* or administrative head quarters of Padinalknád *táluk*, in the territory of Coorg Lat. 12° 19′ N, long 75° 44′ E.

Distant from Merkára 15 miles. Population (1881) 896. Anglo-vernacular school, with 55 pupils in 1882. Two roads lead to Merkára, one *viâ* Murnád, the other *viâ* Bettakeri.

Nar.—Town in the Petlád Sub-division of Baroda State, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 28′ N., long. 72° 45′ E. Population (1881) 7328. School and two *dharmsálás.*

Nára, Eastern.—An important water channel in Sind, Bombay Presidency; rising, as believed by some, in the floods of Baháwalpur State, and running southward successively through the Rohri Sub-division of Shikárpur District, Khairpur State, and the Thar and Párkar District. The main source of supply of the Eastern Nára is still undetermined. The first well-defined head occurs at Khári, near the town of Rohri, whence the stream runs almost due south through Khairpur, afterwards entering the Thar and Párkar District, where the channel is in some places broad, and in others scarcely perceptible. At Nawakot it divides into two channels, the larger proceeding in a south-easterly direction to Wango-jo-got, where it meets the Púran; the other skirting the foot of the Thar, and joining the Púran below Wango Bázár. In the valley of the Eastern Nára there are about 400 lakes, and there is good reason for believing that this canal was in former years entirely fed by the floods of the Indus. Lieutenant Fife, in his Report of 1852, states that the stoppage of the water-supply of the stream, which was attributed to a dyke put across the Nára in Upper Sind, had in reality arisen from natural causes, the quantity in some years being so excessive, and in others so deficient as to prevent cultivation. Acting upon his advice, Government constructed a supply channel from the Indus near Rohri; and, later on, excavations were made in the bed of the Nára so as to facilitate the flow of the water southwards. Further improvements were effected by erecting a series of embankments on the right side, to arrest the overflow. The principal canals in connection with the Eastern Nára are the Mithráu (123 miles long, inclusive of branches), the Thar (44 miles), and the Dimwá (15 miles). The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed that the aggregate cost of these works up to the end of 1873–74 amounted to £274,749; the receipts in the same year were £236,727, and the total charges (exclusive of interest), £66,094. The gross income was thus 84 per cent. on the capital expended, and the net receipts 60 per cent. The area irrigated was 124,793 acres. The cost of the entire works when completed is estimated at £1,063,827, and the net revenue at £66,533. At the close of 1882–83, it was reported that the protective embankments were advanced, and the land was recovering from the floods of past years. The works would now begin to show a gradual but steady increase up to their full capabilities. The supply channel would be

deepened to ensure a proper *rabi* supply for all the existing canals in the Eastern Nara system

Nara, Western.—An important water channel in Sind, Bombay Presidency, issuing from the Indus (lat 27° 29 N, long 68° 20 E), which it taps close to the village of Kathia in the *tāluk* of Lárkhána After a southerly course through portions of the Lárkhána and Labdarya *tāluks* of Lárkhana Sub division it enters the Mehar Sub division by the *tāluks* of Kakar Tigar and Mehar and after a course of 138 miles, falls into the northern side of Lake Manchhar in the Sehwán Sub division of Karachi District The Western Nara is a natural channel artificially improved and being navigable for river boats throughout its entire length between May and September, it is preferred to the Indus as a boat route during the floods as the current is not so strong as in the river About 17 canals branch directly from the Western Nara, 4 being in Larkhana 7 in Mehar and 6 in Sehwán Sub-divisions Floods from this channel occur at times and in parts prevent the cultivation of rice The Western Nara is for purposes of superintendence, included in the Ghar and Karachi canal system The returns furnished for the first edition of this work showed a revenue realized in 1873-74 of £40 211 against an expenditure of £3339 leaving a profit or surplus of £36 982 No later returns are available

Nárad.—A name given to three different streams in Rajshahi District, Bengal (1) The first is a small offshoot of the Ganges which it leaves a few miles below the town of Rampur Beauleah and thence flows into the Musá Khán near Putiyá A short distance north of Putiya, (2) another stream, also called the Nárad though in no sense a continuation of the former watercourse leaves the Musá Khan, and flows eastward past Nattor It is navigable for a great part of the year Its chief tributary from the south is (3) the Narad, a branch of the Nandákujá The united streams fall eventually into the Atrái just above its junction with the Nandákujá

Naraina.—Town in Jaipur State, Rájputána distant 40 miles west from Jaipur city Contains several temples of interest and famous as the head quarters of the sect of Dadu Panthis, from whom the foot soldiers of the State called Nágas, are obtained The sect is not very numerous, and professes to worship one God unrepresented by any image or without a temple, their saints are celibates, and maintain succession by adoption The Nagas number between 4000 and 5000, to their fidelity, daring, and moral influence as soldiers, is attributed the steadfastness of the general army of the Jaipur State to the British cause during the Mutiny of 1857

Nárainganj (*Nárāyanganj*).—Sub Division in Dacca District, Bengal Area, 641 square miles, number of towns and villages, 2064,

ies, 54,104. Population (1881), males 240,784, and females 873; total, 470,657. Classified according to religion, there :—Muhammadans, 334,439; Hindus, 132,937; Christians, 3243; Buddhists, 38. Average density of population, 734 persons per re mile; villages per square mile, 3·22; persons per village, 228; ses per square mile, 87; persons per house, 8·7. This Sub-division prises the three police circles (*tháNás*) of Náráinganj, Rúpganj, and ɔurá. In 1883 it contained 1 civil court and an honorary magis-'s bench, with 1 criminal court. The police force consisted of egular police of all ranks, and 803 rural police or village watch-.

áráinganj (*Náráyanganj*).—Town in Dacca District, Bengal; ited in lat. 23° 37′ 15″ N., and long. 90° 32′ 5″ E., on the western of the Lakhmiá, at its confluence with the Dhaleswarí; and, with *ázárs*, extending for about 3 miles along the river. The munici-y also includes MADANGANJ. Population (1872) 10,911; (1881) 08, namely, males 7558, and females 4950. Hindus numbered 4; Muhammadans, 6160; and 'others,' 24. Náráinganj with langanj has been constituted a first-class municipality. Municipal me (1883–84), £2095, of which £1966 was derived from taxation; age incidence of taxation, 3s. 1⅜d. per head of population. Náráin-is distant from Dacca 9 miles by land, and about 16 or 18 by water, is in reality the port of that city, including Madanganj, a little r down on the opposite bank of the river. In the neighbourhood several forts built by Mír Jumlá; and almost opposite stands the lam Rasúl, a spot held in great repute among the pious Musalmáns nis part of the country.

áráinganj possesses regular steam communication with Calcutta ct, with the railway station of GOALANDA, with the Assam valley, with the tea Districts of Sylhet and Cachar. A considerable trade lso carried on in country boats with Chittagong, and it has been posed to establish a steamer-service to that port by means of the ghná. The chief business of Náráinganj is the collection of country luce, especially jute, from the neighbouring Districts; and the distri-on of piece-goods, salt, and other European wares. Many English a few other European firms are engaged in this business, but the of the trade is in the hands of native merchants. There are eral steam-presses belonging to Europeans, for the preparation of in bales.

'he total value of the trade of Náráinganj, according to the stration returns of 1876–77, amounted to considerably more 1 two millions sterling; but this figure includes many exports imports twice over. The exports alone were valued at £957,000, chief items being—jute, £478,000; rice, £141,000; piece-goods,

£76,000, salt, £67,000, tobacco, £34 000, raw cotton, £31,000 The imports were valued at £1,538,000, including—jute, £478,000 (i e transit trade), piece goods, £324,000, salt, £184 000, raw cotton, £122,000, rice, £121,000, sugar, £95 000, oil seeds, £70,000, tobacco, £66 000 The figures do not include the subsidiary port of Madanganj, which had a business valued at £170,000 The imports of jute are derived in almost equal quantities from the adjoining Districts of Maimansingh and Tipperah, and from Dacca itself The exports of jute are all sent to Calcutta, either direct by steamer and country boat, or by railway from Goálandá. In 1876–77 out of a total export of 1,600,000 *maunds* of jute, 670 000 were despatched through Goalandá, 570,000 by country boat, and 360 000 direct by steamer In 1877–78, the total export of jute had risen to 2 137 000 *maunds* or almost exactly the same quantity as that exported from Sirájganj No later statistics are available, but trade, especially in jute, has largely increased of late years. The trade with Chittagong chiefly consists of the export of tobacco, food grain, and oil seeds and the import of raw cotton, which has been grown in the Chittagong Hill Tracts Náraingan) forms the terminus of the new Dacca Maimansingh Railway just opened (December 1885)

Nárájol.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal situated on the Palaspai, a small stream, in lat 22° 34 8 N, and long 87° 39 4 E Seat of a large manufacture of cotton cloth and mats Population between 2000 and 3000, but not separately returned in the Census of 1881

Nárakal.—Town and port in the State of Cochin Madras Presidency, situated in lat 10° 2 30″ N, and long 76° 12 E, 3 miles west of Cochin city Population (1881) 4254 The place owes its importance to a so-called mud bank, which stretches about 2½ miles seaward, and is 4 miles long Within this, vessels can run in the worst of the south west monsoon, when all other ports on the coast are closed This mud apparently breaks the force of the sea, for the water within is calm when the weather is at its roughest outside During the famine of 1877, the port was much used in the monsoon season for landing grain, which was then conveyed by backwater to the railway at Tirur, and so to the distressed Districts Coasting steamers call here regularly Narakal is mentioned as the seat of a considerable Christian population by Fra Paolo Bartolomeo

Narál—Sub-division of Jessor District, Bengal, lying between 22° 55 45″ and 23° 21′ N lat, and between 89° 25 and 89° 51 30 E. long *Area, 487 square miles, villages, 802, houses, 36,140* Population (1881) 328,172, namely, 173 806 Hindus, 154 341 Muhammadans, and 25 Christians. Number of persons per square mile, 673 8, villages per square mile, 1 64, houses per square mile, 77, inmates per house, 9, proportion of males, 49 7 per cent This Sub-division,

which comprises the three police circles (*thánás*) of Narál, Lohágara, and Kalia, contained, in 1883, 3 civil and revenue and 2 magisterial courts, with a force of 61 regular police, besides 578 village watchmen.

Narál.—Town in Jessor District, Bengal, and head-quarters of Narál Sub-division; situated in lat. 23° 10′ N., and long. 89° 32′ 30″ E., 22 miles east of Jessor town, on the Chitrá river, which is here very deep, and affords a regular route for large boats throughout the year. Contains the usual Sub-divisional offices. Two bi-weekly markets are held, but the trade is entirely local. The Narál family are the first landholders of Jessor District, and have always been noted for their liberality. Several works of public utility have been constructed by them. A good school and charitable dispensary are also maintained at their expense.

Naráoli.—Agricultural town in Bilárí *tahsíl*, Moradábád District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 28° 29′ N., and long. 78° 45′ E., 5 miles east of the river Sot. Population (1881) 5069, namely, Hindus, 3053, and Muhammadans, 2016; number of houses, 709. Naráoli is an old Rájput village in the possession of the Bargíyar family, the descendants of Rájá Pratáp Singh. Market held on Mondays and Thursdays. Elementary school.

Narasaráopet.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Area, 712 square miles. Population (1881) 128,791, namely, 65,168 males and 63,623 females, dwelling in 114 villages, consisting of 21,909 houses. Hindus numbered 110,368; Muhammadans, 9999; Christians, 8421; and 'others,' 3. The head-quarters of the *táluk* is at Athúru, now called Narasaráopet; population (1881) 3928; number of houses, 981. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 56 men. Total revenue, £33,887.

Narasinganallúr.—Village in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 8° 42′ N., and long. 77° 42′ E., 3½ miles west of Tinnevelli town. Population (1881) 1724; number of houses, 441.

Narasinha-angadi.—Town in South Kánara District, Madras Presidency.—*See* JAMALABAD.

Náráyanadevarakera.—Town in Hospet *táluk*, Bellary District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 3669, of whom 1741 are males and 1928 females; number of houses, 945. Hindus numbered 3084, and Muhammadans 585.

Náráyanavanam.—Town in North Arcot District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 13° 27′ N., long. 79° 38′ E. Population (1881) 3913, of whom 3776 were Hindus; number of houses, 692. Situated 3 miles east of Puttúr station on the north-west line of the Madras Railway. Náráyanavanam is one of the most ancient places in North Arcot; it is believed to stand in what was once a forest much frequented

by Vishnu Three miles south of the town are the remains of two old forts

Náráyanganj —Sub division and town in Dacca District, Bengal.—*See* NARAINGANJ

Narbadá —Division or Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 41 and 23° 15 N lat and between 75° 50 and 79° 35 E long, and comprising the five Districts of HOSHANGABAD, NARSINGHPUR, BETUL, CHHINDWARA and NIMAR, all of which see separately Bounded on the north by the States of the Central India Agency, and Ságar and Damoh Districts on the east by Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) and Seoní Districts on the south by Nágpur, Amráotí, Ellichpur, and Akolá Districts, and on the west by Khandesh District, and States of the Central India Agency

The Narbadá Division contains an area of 17 513 square miles, 11 towns and 6144 villages, number of houses, 363 444 Total population (1881) 1,763,105 namely males 900 730, and females 862,375, proportion of males, 51 09 per cent Average density of population, 100 7 persons per square mile number of persons per town or village, 286 houses per square mile, 20 75 inmates per house, 4 85 Classified according to sex and age the Census returns —under 15 years of age, boys 366,056, and girls 345 785, total children, 711,841, or 40 1 per cent of the whole population 15 years and upwards, males 534,674, and females 516 590, total adults, 1,051,264, or 59 6 per cent

Religion —Classified according to religion, Hindus number 1,286 623, or 72 9 per cent, Muhammadans 76,536, or 4 3 per cent Kabír panthís, 9544, Satnámis, 85, Jains, 7536, Christians, 1786 Pársis, 141, Jews, 51, Sikhs, 13, and non Hindu aboriginal tribes 380 788, or 21 6 per cent of the population The total aboriginal population, however, by race is returned at 476,007, as follows —Gonds of different tribes, 338,312, Korkus, 81,716, Bhils, 36 382, Kanwárs, 16,075, Kols, 1374, Savars, 1015, Kharnas, 635, Mughiás, 402, and 'others,' 34

Of high caste Hindus, Brahmans number 79,956, Rájputs, 102,700, Bháts, 4825, Gosains, 7467, Káyasths, 6951, and Baniyás, 22,880 The Sudra, or low caste Hindus, include the following —Kurmí, the most numerous caste in the Division, 118,757, Ahír, 75,983, Mehrá, 67,213, Lodhí, 49 373, Chamár, 45,922, Balahi, 43,685, Gújar, 41,699, Telí, 41,324, Kirar, 33,442, Bhoer, 29,828, Dhimár, 28,485, Kachhí, 26,394, Náí, 25,239, Málí, 22,885, Barhái, 21,548, Sonar, 18,290, Lohár, 18,155, Kallar, 17,804, Katiyá, 17,015, Dhobí, 14,412, Kumbhar, 13 937, Banjára, 12,187, Gadária, 9937, Básor, 9120, Kori, 8493, Marathá, 7347, Darzi, 7191, Koshti, 5966, and Mahar, 5465 The Muhammadan sects include—Sunnis, 72,258,

Shiás, 2537; Wahábís, 80; Faráizís, 3; and unspecified, 1658. The Christian community is returned as follows:—Roman Catholics, 960; Church of England, 350; Episcopalians, 134; Presbyterians, 86; Protestants not distinguished by sect, 42; Wesleyans, 30; Methodists, 21; and 'others' and unspecified, 163. According to another classification, the Christians comprise—Europeans, 564; Eurasians, 178; Indo-Portuguese, 91; Natives of India, 748; and unspecified, 205.

Town and Rural Population.—Narbadá Division contains 11 towns with a population exceeding 5000 inhabitants—namely, Burhánpur, 30,017; Hoshangábád, 15,863; Khandwá, 15,142; Hardá, 11,203; Narsinghpur, 10,222; Chhindwárá, 8220; Gadarwárá, 8100; Pándhurná, 7469; Sohágpur, 7027; Seoní, 6998; and Mohgáon, 5180. Total urban population, 125,441, or 7·2 per cent. of that of the whole Division. Of the 6203 rural villages, 3558 contain less than two hundred inhabitants; 1896 between two and five hundred; 547 between five hundred and a thousand; 190 between one and three thousand; and 12 between three and five thousand inhabitants. As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional, military, and official class, 22,244; (2) domestic class, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 9001; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 15,778; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 380,228; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, including artisans, 120,601; (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising general labourers and male children, 352,878.

Agriculture, etc.—Of the total area of the Division (17,513 square miles), 5386 square miles were returned as under cultivation in 1883-84; 4251 square miles as cultivable, but not under cultivation; and 7876 square miles as uncultivable waste. The principal crops consist of wheat, 1,186,462 acres; rice, 69,517 acres; other food-grains, 1,776,202 acres; oil-seeds, 258,504 acres; cotton, 144,370 acres; and sugar-cane, 17,561 acres. Of the total adult male and female agricultural population in 1881, landed proprietors numbered 22,196; tenants with rights of occupancy, 63,839; tenants-at-will, 142,859; assistants in home cultivation, 200,921; agricultural labourers, 207,660; while shepherds, estate agents, farm bailiffs, etc., bring the total up to 639,229, or 36·26 per cent. of the Divisional population. Average area of cultivated and cultivable land per adult agriculturist, 10 acres. Total amount of Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses levied on land, £154,316, or an average of 10⅜d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by cultivators, £349,152, or an average of 1s. 11⅝d. per head. Communication is afforded by 1128 miles of made roads, 287 miles of railways, and 494 miles of navigable rivers.

Administration.—Total revenue (1883-84) of Narbadá Division, £277,018; total cost of officials and police of all kinds, £61,964. Justice is administered by 44 civil and 58 criminal courts. Total strength of regular and town police, 2145 men. Average daily number of prisoners in jail (1883), 342·43. Total number of Government inspected schools (1883-84) 349, with 17,925 pupils. The Census of 1881 returned 16,236 boys and 482 girls as under instruction, besides 37,930 males and 714 females able to read and write but not under instruction. [For further details, see the accounts of the different Districts in their alphabetical order.]

Narbadá (*Nerbudda, Narmadá*—the *Namadus* of Ptolemy, *Namnadius* of the *Periplus*).—One of the great rivers of India, traditionally regarded as the boundary between Hindustán Proper and the Deccan. It rises (lat. 22° 41′ N., long. 81° 49′ E.) in the dominions of the Rajá of Rewa, and, after a westward course of 800 miles, falls into the sea (lat. 21° 38′ N., long. 72° 30′ E.) below Broach in the Bombay District of that name. Its source is at Amarkantak, a massive flat-topped hill, 3493 feet above sea-level, forming the eastern terminus of that long range which runs across the middle of India from west to east. All round lies a wild and desolate country; but a little colony of priests have reared their temples in the middle of these mighty solitudes, to guard the sources of the sacred river. The Narbada bubbles up gently in a small tank in one of the undulating glades on the summit of the mountain. Then for about three miles it meanders through green meadows, receiving the waters of countless springs till it reaches the edge of the Amarkantak plateau, where it falls over the black basaltic cliff in a glistening cascade of 70 feet, called Kapila Dhara. A little farther on is a smaller fall, known as Dudhdhára, or the Stream of Milk, the myth being that here the river once ran with milk instead of water.

After descending some hundreds of feet by falls and rapids from the heights of Amarkantak, the Narbadá enters the Central Provinces, and winds round the hills of Mandla, till it flows under the walls of the ruined palace of Rámnagar. At this point the Narbada has run a course of nearly a hundred miles, and received the drainage of an extensive hill country. Its swollen waters flow in several channels, between which rise wooded islands, while in mid-stream, peaks and ledges of black trap protrude in all directions. The banks are clothed with thick foliage to the water's edge, and on every side hills shut in the horizon. But below Rámnagar for several miles down to Mandlá, the river flows in an unbroken expanse of blue water between banks adorned with lofty trees. Of all the pools or reaches (*dohs*) in the rivers of the Central Provinces, this is the loveliest.

Below Mandlá, at Gwarighat, where the Trunk Road crosses from Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) to Nagpur, the Narbadá river wears the look of

industry; for at this point are collected many hundred logs of timber cut in the forests, to be floated down the stream to the marts of Jabalpur. About 9 miles to the south-west of Jabalpur, the Narbadá flings itself tumultuously over a ledge with a fall of thirty feet, called Dhuán-dhára, or the Misty Shoot; and then enters on a narrow channel, cut through a mass of marble and basalt for nearly 2 miles, and known as the 'Marble Rocks.' The river, which above this point had a breadth of 100 yards, is here compressed within 20 yards, and flows in a swirling stream between marble bluffs from 50 to 80 feet high, till, escaping from its glittering prison, it spreads out once more in a broad expanse.

The Narbadá now leaves the hill country behind, and enters upon the fertile valley, over 200 miles long, which includes Narsinghpur and the greater part of Hoshangábád District. This is the first of those wide alluvial basins, which, alternating with rocky gorges, give so varied a character to the river's course. Probably they were originally lakes, more or less closely connected, and fed by a slowly flowing river, down which clayey sediment was carried, and gradually and uniformly distributed over a considerable extent of country. On the conglomerate and clay thus deposited, lie 20 feet of the rich alluvium, known as the *regar* or black cotton-soil of Central India. Passing under a great railway viaduct, with massive piers, the Narbadá flows along this valley, which is shut in between the parallel ranges of the Vindhya and Sátpura mountains. During the rainy season, the river affords the means of a brief and precarious traffic. At Barmán Ghát, after the rains, the receding waters leave a broad space of sand, where, every November, is held one of the largest fairs in the Central Provinces. The Narbadá now flows past the coal-pits of Mohpání and the iron-mines of Tendúkherá, past cotton fields and plains clothed twice a year with waving harvests, past Hoshangábád, and the once famous towns of Handiá and Nimáwar, past Jogígarh, where it rushes with clear rapids right beneath the battlements and bastions, till it once more enters the jungle in the District of Nimár. Emerging from these wilds, it flows in a deep and violent stream past the sacred island of MANDHATA, crowded with Sivaite temples, and steep with cliffs, from which devotees were wont to dash themselves on to the rocks in the river below.

During the passage of the Narbadá through the Central Provinces, several falls interrupt its course. At Umariá, in Narsinghpur District, is a fall of about 10 feet; at Mandhár, 25 miles below Handiá, a fall of 40 feet; and at Dádrí, near Punása, another fall of 40 feet. The Narbadá is fed principally from the south side, as the drainage of the Vindhyan table-land which bounds the valley on the north is almost entirely northwards. Its principal affluents are the Makrár, Chakrár, Kharmer, Burhner, and Banjar, then the Tímar, the Soner, Sher, and

Shakar the Dudhi, *Korami* Machná, Tawa, Ganjal, and Ajnál. On the north bank, the Narbadá receives, among others, the mountain streams Balái, Gaur, and Hiran.

At Makrai, the Narbada finally leaves the table land of Malwa to enter upon the broad plain of Gujarát. For the first 30 miles it separates the Gaekwar's territory of Baroda, on the right, from the State of Rájpipla, on the left, and then for the remaining 70 miles of its course, including many windings, it intersects the fertile District of Broach. Its average breadth here varies from about half a mile to a mile. Below Broach city it gradually widens into an estuary, whose shores are 13 miles apart where they fall away into the Gulf of Cambay. The influence of the tide is felt as far up as Rajanpur, about 25 miles above Broach. At the mouth of the estuary, spring tides sometimes rise to the height of 30 feet. In Broach District, the Narbadá has cut for itself a deep and permanent bed through the hard alluvial soil. The right or north bank is generally high and precipitous, but is gradually being eaten away by the present set of the current. The left bank is low and shelving. The fair weather level of the river is about 21 feet below the surface of the *plain, and even the highest floods do but little damage to the surround* ing country. In this part of its course the Narbadá receives three *tributaries—the Káveri (Cauvery) and Amravati on the left,* and the Bukhi on the right. Opposite the mouth of the Bukhi lies a large uninhabited island, called the Alia Bet. This has undergone many changes of late years, and now has an area of about 22 000 acres over grown with dense jungle. The total length of the Narbada, from its source to the sea, is 801 miles, and the total area of its drainage basin is estimated at 36 400 square miles. Its maximum flood discharge has been calculated at 2 500 000 cubic feet of water per second. The velocity of the current in the dry season at Broach city is less than one mile an hour.

Throughout its entire course the Narbadá drains rather than waters the country through which it flows. It is therefore nowhere utilized for irrigation. Navigation is confined to the lowest section, which lies within Gujarat. In the height of the rainy season of 1847, a British officer succeeded in making his way down stream from Mandlesar, in the territory of Indor, but the perils through which he passed are so great as to close the route to commerce. The highest point to which *navigation ordinarily extends is about 15 miles above the Makrai Falls.* In the rainy season—from July to September—boats of considerable tonnage are able to sail up as far as Talakwárá, about 65 miles [illegible] Broach city, assisted by the regular south west monsoon. Sea [illegible] ships of about 70 tons frequent the port of Broach, but [illegible] entirely dependent upon the tide, as they cannot come [illegible]

monsoon, and during the dry season there is no depth of fresh water. Though the foreign trade of Broach has greatly fallen off from what it was in early days, this decline does not seem to be due to unfavourable changes in the channel of the river. The author of the *Periplus* (1st century A.D.) dwells upon the difficulty of getting up to Barugaza (Broach), even by the help of skilful pilots, and moving only with the tide. Fryer (1680) tells a very similar story; and Heber (1825) says that no vessels larger than moderately-sized lighters could cross the bar.

According to local legend, it was believed that the goddess of the Narbadá would never suffer her stream to be crossed by a bridge. The Bombay and Baroda Railway Company, however, succeeded in proving the falsehood of this legend. Their first bridge, near the city of Broach, begun in 1860, was seriously damaged by a flood in 1864, and though the repairs then required suffered from another flood in 1868, by 1871 the bridge again stood complete, after a total expenditure of £470,000. The unprecedented flood of 1876, which rose to a height of 35 feet above high-water mark, washed away 26 spans, or 1600 feet out of a total length of 4250 feet. The traffic was carried on a temporary structure; and a new bridge was commenced about 100 yards farther up-stream, and completed at an estimated cost of £375,000. Altogether, the bridging of the Narbadá cannot have cost this company much less than a million sterling. There are besides three other bridges over the Narbadá, one at Mortakka on the Málwá branch of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway, the second at Hoshangábád on the Bhopál State Railway, and the third where the river is crossed by the Great Indian Peninsula Railway about 24 miles from Jabalpur.

In religious sanctity, the Narbadá ranks only second to the Ganges among the rivers of India. According to the *Rewá Purána* (Rewá being another name for the river), the sanctity of the Ganges will cease in the Samvat year 1951 (1895 A.D.), while the purifying virtue of the Narbadá will continue the same throughout all the ages of the world. So holy is the water, that the very pebbles in its bed are worn into the shape of the emblem of Siva. Few Hindus would dare to forswear themselves, standing in the Narbadá with a garland of red flowers round the neck and some water in the right hand. The most meritorious act that a pilgrim can perform, is to walk from the sea up to the source at Amarkantak, and then back along the opposite bank. This pilgrimage, called *parikrám* or *pradakshana*, is chiefly undertaken by devotees from Gujarát and the Deccan, and takes from one year to two years in accomplishment. In Broach District, the most sacred spots are—Sukaltirth, with its ancient banian tree; the site near Broach city where Rájá Bálí performed the ten-horse sacrifice; and the temples at Karod and Bhádbhut.

Naregal.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency, situated miles east of Dhárwár town, in lat 15° 36 N, and long 75° E. Population (1881) 6071, namely, 5422 Hindus and 649 Muhammadans. Naregal is an old town with temples and inscriptions dating from the eleventh to the thirteenth century A.D. Weekly markets on Monday. School with 191 pupils in 1883–84.

Nargund.—Town in Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency, situated 00 miles east of Belgaum, and 32 miles north east of Dharwár town, in lat 15° 43′ 22 N, and long 75° 25 30 E. Population (1881) 7874, namely, 6774 Hindus, 1049 Muhammadans and 51 Jains. Nargund is a municipal town, with an income (1882) of £178. Though not a manufacturing town it is a busy entrepot of trade, where the merchants of Dhárwár and North Kánara exchange rice sugar spices and other agricultural products. Nargund was one of the earliest possessions wrested from the feeble grasp of the Muhammadan kings of Bijápur by the Marathá rulers of Satára. It was subsequently handed over to Rámráo Bháve, with some surrounding villages. On the conquest of the Peshwá's territory by the British it was restored by them to Dadáji Ráo, the chief then found in possession. An agreement was concluded with him, by which he was exempted from the payment of his former tribute of £347, from *nazarana* or presents on occasions, and from rendering service, on the conditions of loyalty to and dependence on the British Government. This petty principality containing 36 towns and villages, with a population of about 25 000 was at the time of the Mutiny in 1857 held by Bhaskar Rao *alias* Baba Sahib. Affected by the disturbances in the north, the chief rose in open rebellion, and murdered Mr Manson, the Commissioner and Political Agent Southern Marathá country. An English force was despatched at once to Nargund, and, after a short but decisive engagement the fort and town of Nargund fell into the hands of the English. The fortifications have since been dismantled, and the fort has been rendered untenable by destroying some of the chief reservoirs. Four schools, with 300 pupils in 1883–84. Post-office.

Narhi—Agricultural town in Korantidih *tahsil* Gházipur District, North Western Provinces, situated in lat 25° 42′ 15 N, and long 84° 4′ 15″ E, 2 miles north of the Ganges, and 36 miles east of Gházipur town. Population (1881) 5415, namely, Hindus 5172, and Muhammadans 243. Number of houses, 799. The village is the principal residence of the Bemwár Bhumhar clan.

Nari—Town in Chandá District, Central Provinces.—*See* NERI.

Nariád.—Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency, situated in the centre of the District. Bounded on the north by Kapadvanj, on the east by Thásra and Anand, on the south by Baroda territory, and on the west by Matar and Mehmadábad. Ar

224 square miles. Population (1872) 151,483; (1881) 152,936, namely 78,813 males and 74,123 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 91 villages, containing 39,256 houses. Hindus numbered 134,263; Muhammadans, 18,121; and 'others,' 552. Of the total area of 224 square miles, seven are occupied by lands of alienated villages. The remainder contains 122,959 acres, or 87·8 per cent., of occupied land; 1643 acres of cultivable waste; 7934 acres of uncultivable waste; and 7183 acres of roads, rivers, ponds, and village sites. In 122,034 acres, the area of occupied land and cultivable waste, there are 16,771 acres of alienated lands in Government villages. The Sub-division was surveyed and settled in 1863–64. There were then 22,028 holdings, with an average area of 5 acres, and an average rental of £2, 13s. 7½d. The total area of cultivated land in 1876 was 49,056 acres, mostly under grains, bájra, rice, millets, and wheat; 199 acres were under cotton. In 1883, the land revenue was £58,144. The Sub-division contains 1 civil and 4 criminal courts; police circles (thánás), 2; regular police, 100 men; village watch (chaukídárs), 593.

Nadiád.—Chief town of the Nadiád Sub-division of Kaira District, Bombay Presidency, and a station on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India Railway; situated 29 miles south-east of Ahmadábád. Lat. 22° 42' 45" N., long. 72° 55' 22" E. Population (1881) 28,304, namely 14,773 males and 13,531 females. Hindus numbered 23,778; Muhammadans 4006; Jains 218; Pársís 302; and Christians, 18. Nadiád is a municipality; income (1883–84), £4992; incidence of taxation, 2s. 8½d. per head of population. Small cause court, sub-judge's court, post-office, and dispensary. The head-quarters of the chief revenue and police officers of the Sub-division. The town is the centre of the extensive tobacco and ghí trade of Kaira District, and contains a cotton mill. There is also a Government model experimental farm. Including the High School, there were in 1883–84 eight schools with 1521 scholars.

Nárikelbáriá.—Village in Jessor District, Bengal; situated on the Chitrá river, 6 miles from Bághutiá. One of the seats of the Jessor sugar trade.

Nárisha.—Town in Dacca District, Bengal. Lat. 23° 38' 45" N., long. 90° 10' 45" E. Population (1881) 5377, namely, males 1898, and females 3479.

Nárkher.—Town in Nágpur District, Central Provinces; 50 miles from Nágpur city, on the Betúl road. Population (1881) 7068, chiefly agricultural. Hindus numbered 6458; Muhammadans 457; Jains 82; and aboriginal tribes, 24. Nárkher has a good market-place, school, and police buildings, and the river is embanked with masonry. The place is surrounded by beautiful groves, but is reckoned unhealthy.

nada —One of the great rivers of India —*See* NARBADA.

nála —Hill fortress in Akola District Berár Lat 21° 14 30
ıg 77° 4 20 E Situated 10 miles to the north of Akot
la is the highest point in the District standing 3161 feet
sea level and forms a sort of advanced outwork about 2
south of the main wall of the Gávilgarh range A central
occupies all the upper plateau of the hill while two smaller
s (Teliagarh and Jafarabád) enclose two considerable spurs running
at opposite angles on a lower level and in the direction of the
ıgth of the hill which is from north east to south west The ram
rts, which extend over a distance of several miles consist generally
f a wall from 25 to 40 feet high with 67 flanking towers There are
ix large and twenty one small gates Four only of the nineteen
anks within the walls hold water throughout the year The fort also
contains four very curious stone cisterns covered in by a masonry
platform pierced by small apertures On this platform are the remains
of arches The water in the cisterns is remarkably sweet and cool
They are supposed to have been built by the Jains who ruled the
country before the Musalman conquest for many Jains drink no water
on which the sun has fallen The old palace a mosque called after
Aurangzeb an armoury a twelve doored pavilion a music hall and
other buildings, all more or less in ruins occupy the interior of the
central fort. Perhaps the most beautiful architectural feature is the
Shahnur gate on the south which is of white sandstone with projecting
balconies on either side the open stone lattice work the rich cornice
and tracery and panelling with stone-cut verses from the Koran are
admirable specimens of Pathan workmanship The walls are now
falling into ruin and the fort is uninhabited

Narora.—Town in Bulandshahr District North Western Provinces
Lat 28° 12 N, long 78° 25 45″ E

Narot —Town and municipality in Pathánkot *tahsil* Gurdaspur
District, Punjab, situated in the trans Rávi tract, in lat 32° 17 30 N
and long 75° 30 E, half way between the Rávi and the hills Popu
lation (1881) 3706, namely 2034 Hindus, 1668 Muhammadans and
4 Sikhs Principal mart in the fertile submontane belt known as
Chak Andar, and the local collecting centre for the products of the
hills below which it lies. Exports of rice and turmeric to Amritsar
(Umritsur) and Lahore Municipal revenue in 1883-84, £248, or
1s 4½d. per head of population within municipal limits

Narowál.—Town and municipality in Raiah *tahsil*, Siálkot District,
Punjab Lat. 32° 6 N, long. 74° 55 E Distant from Siálkot town 35
miles south east. Formerly head quarters of a *tahsíl*, now
to Raiah Population (1881) 4558, namely
H nd s 1429, Sikhs, 151, Jains, 24, and

houses, 657. Post-office, Government school, police station, *munsif's* court, and rest-house. Nárowál town has been much improved of late years; many of the houses are built of brick, the principal streets paved, and the drainage attended to. The Church of England Mission have established a small settlement of Native Christians here, and keep up a middle-class school, which receives a municipal grant of £50 a year. The principal trade consists in the export of agricultural produce, but the town is chiefly famous for its leather work; native saddles and shoes of superior quality being made here, and sent to Amritsar and other large commercial centres in the Punjab. Good copper and brass vessels are also made, and there are a few Kashmiri settlers in the town, who make *pashmina* shawl edging, which is sent to Amritsar for sale. Municipal income in 1883-84, £305, or 1s. 4d. per head of the town population.

Narrakal.—Town in Cochin, Madras Presidency.—*See* NARAKAL.

Narri.—Salt-mine in Kohát District, Punjab; one of the series extending along either bank of the Teri Toi river. Lat. 33° 11′ 15″ N., long. 71° 12′ 30″ E.; lies on the southern side of the range of salt-bearing hills north of the river, 31 miles west-south-west of Malgin mine, and 34½ miles south-south-west from Kohát town. The quarries of pure rock-salt extend over an area 2 miles long by half a mile broad. The mineral is excavated by blasting, and the mine is resorted to by Afrídís, Khataks, Bangashes, Mohmands, and Swátís. Preventive establishment of 13 men. Formerly a Government military outpost, held by a detachment from the Kohát garrison, but now abandoned. Average annual Government salt revenue for the six years ending 1881-82, £1022.

Narsannapet.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 8230, namely, Hindus 8223, and Muhammadans 7.

Narsápur.—*Táluk* in Godávari District, Madras Presidency. Area, 437 square miles. Population (1881) 200,153, namely, 96,592 males and 103,561 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 137 villages, and occupying 33,785 houses. Hindus number 196,040; Muhammadans, 3619; and Christians, 494. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 6; regular police, 68 men. Land revenue, £58,659.

The *táluk* lies in the south of the District, and has a seaboard on the south. There are 3 main canals used for irrigation and navigation. The Vasisht, an affluent of the Godávari, runs through the *táluk*. Products—rice, gram, yams, betel, cocoa and areca nuts, tobacco, and sugar-cane. Principal industry, toy-making.

Narsápur (*Nursapore*).—Town in Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 26′ 20″ N., and long. 81° 44′ 30″ E., at the mouth of the Vasishta Godávari. Population (1881) 7184, namely,

Hindus, 6256, Muhammadans, 829, and Christians, 99 Once a flourishing port, but now nearly cut off from the sea by the extension of the Godavari delta. Narsápur is the head quarters of the Narsápur *taluk*, and contains the courts of a Sub Magistrate and District *munsif*, and several Government offices There is a mission establishment and a fine market place Toy making and cloth dyeing The Dutch established themselves here in 1665, and had an iron foundry The English occupied the north suburb, *Mádhavapalayam* (whence the trade name *Madapollam*), in 1677, and maintained their factory there for 150 years There is still a good boat building business. Trade (in country bottoms) with Burma, formerly of about £10,000 a year, but now languishing. The average annual value of the imports for the five years ending 1883-84 was £711, and of the exports, £2359 In 1883-84, the imports were valued at £46, all from ports in India, the exports at £626, of which £65 was from foreign ports

Narsingha.—Dome-shaped rock in Seoni District, Central Provinces, rising 100 feet out of the Waingangá valley The temple on the top, sacred to Narsingha, an incarnation of Vishnu, contains an image of the god. A village of the same name lies below the hill

Narsinghgarh.—Native State under the Bhopál Agency, Central India. Area, 623 square miles. Population (1881) 112,427, namely, 60,420 males and 52,007 females, occupying 17,502 houses, scattered over 1 town and 416 villages Hindus number 100,952, Muhammadans, 4958, Jains, 318, Sikh, 1, and aboriginal tribes, 6198, of whom 3104 were Mínás, 2828 Bhíls, 252 Deswalis, and 14 Moghiás. Revenue, £50,000 Parasa Rám, the founder of the Narsinghgarh State, succeeded his father Ajab Singh in 1660 A D as minister to the Ráwat of Rajgarh In 1681 he compelled the Rawat to divide his territory with him, and Narsinghgarh thus became a separate chiefship The State pays £8500 as tribute to Holkar, under the mediation of the British Government The chief receives a *tankha* (or pecuniary allowance in lieu of rights over land) of Hali Rs. 1200 (say £120) from Sindhia, and another of Rs. 5100 (say £510) from the State of Dewás These sums are received and paid through the British Political Agent The chief is an Umat Rajput, and holds the title of Rájá, which was conferred on him and his heirs by the British Government in 1872, he is entitled to a salute of 11 guns A military force is maintained of 10 guns, 24 artillerymen, 98 cavalry, and 625 infantry

Narsinghgarh.—Chief town of Narsinghgarh State, Bhopál Agency, Central India. Lat 23° 42′ 30″ N, long 77° 5′ 50″ E. Population (1881) 11,400, namely, 6207 males and 5193 females. Hindus number 10,398, Muhammadans, 886, and 'others,' 116. Narsinghgarh is built on a rising ground at the edge of a lake. Above the town on a

boldly scarped hill stands the fort, which was built in 1780 by Achal Singh. The palace of the chief is in the fort. Post-office, dispensary, and hospital.

Narsinghgarh.—Ancient town in Damoh District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 23° 59′ N., and long. 79° 26′ E., 12 miles north-west of Damoh town by the river Sunár, and on the route from Ságar to Rewá. The Muhammadans, who built the fort and mosque, called it Nasratgarh, and the Maráthás gave the present name. The latter erected a second fort, which the British troops partially destroyed in 1857. Police station.

Narsinghpur.—District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 22° 45′ and 23° 15′ N. lat., and between 78° 38′ and 79° 38′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the State of Bhopál, with Ságar (Saugor), Damoh, and Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Districts; on the east by Seoní; on the south by Chhindwárá; and on the west by the river Dúdhí, which separates it from the District of Hoshangábád. Area, 1916 square miles. Population in 1881, 365,173. The administrative head-quarters are at the town of NARSINGHPUR.

Physical Aspect.—The District of Narsinghpur forms the upper half of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley proper. The first of those wide alluvial basins which, alternating with rocky gorges, give so varied a character to the river's course, opens out just below the famous Marble Rocks at Bherághát, 15 miles east of the District boundary, and extends westward for 225 miles, including the whole of Narsinghpur together with the greater part of Hoshangábád. Probably these basins were originally lakes, more or less intimately connected and fed by a slowly flowing river, down which clayey sediment was carried, and gradually and uniformly distributed over a considerable expanse of country. On the conglomerate and clay thus deposited, lie 20 feet of the rich alluvium known as the *regar* or black cotton-soil of Central India.

As originally constituted, Narsinghpur was confined to that part of the valley which is defined by three rivers—the Narbadá on the north, the Sáoner on the east, and the Dúdhí on the west; while the Sátpura heights shut it in on the south. But since its formation, the District has been enlarged by the addition of two isolated tracts across the Narbadá. Of these, the easternmost is an insignificant patch of hill and ravine; that to the west is a small but fertile valley, enclosed by the river in a crescent-shaped bend of the Vindhyan range. To speak of the Vindhyas, however, as a range of hills, is incorrect. Seen from the south, they present an almost uninterrupted series of headlands with projecting promontories and receding bays, like a weather-beaten coast-line; but these form the abrupt termination of a table-land stretching away to the north in gentle undulations, and not an independent range

of hills They afford a fine example of cliffs, once formed by the denuding action of shore waves, but now far inland Ripple marking, almost totally absent in the other sandstone groups of Central India, is found almost everywhere throughout the Vindhyan series in extraordinary perfection Twice in Narsinghpur the Vindhyan headlands abut on the river bed, and twice open out into the bay like curves which constitute the trans Narbadá portions of the District.

The face of the Sátpura range overlooking the valley from the south is generally regular, rising nowhere more than 500 feet above the plain The hills run in a line almost parallel to the Narbada, at a distance from it of 15 or 20 miles, and the intervening space forms the greater part of the District Along the valley the rich level is seldom broken, except by occasional mounds of gravel or *kankar* (nodular limestone), which offer serviceable village sites Any inequalities of surface are generally turned to account for the construction of tanks and reservoirs, often adorned by the graceful domed temples which take the place of the needle shaped spires common in the Hindu shrines of Upper India Nearly every village is embellished by its deep mango groves, and old *pipal* and tamarind trees, and indeed the commonest village names are those derived from trees Thus such names as Piparia (the *pipal* village), Imaliá (the tamarind village) and Umaria (the wild fig village) abound throughout the District After the rains the black soil softens into a stiff bog, but in the winter months, the valley presents the appearance of a broad strip of land walled in on either side by low hill ranges, and green from end to end with young wheat

As soon as the limits of the black soil are passed the country changes Below either range of hills, but more especially on the Sátpura side, are broad belts of red gravelly soil, which merge through woody borders into the lower slopes of the highlands In these tracts the wheat of the valley gives way to rice, sugar cane, and the poorer rain crops, the village roofs are of thatch instead of tile, forest trees take the place of mango groves, and reservoirs are replaced by mountain streams But though less productive, the country has become more picturesque, with its river gorges, and its open glades, covered with short sward, and dotted with old *mahuá* trees

The hill country of the District is insignificant in extent, being nearly confined to the smaller of the tracts north of the Narbadá. Nor are the forests of importance Probably no District in the Central Provinces is so devoid of extensive wastes, and such as exist are too accessible for jungle produce to be abundant Narsinghpur presents few attractions to the sportsman The jungles are ill stocked with large game, and remarkable for the scarcity of their birds

The Narbadá is fed almost entirely from the south Its principal affluents are the Sher and the Shakar, the latter of which was once

known by the name of *Súar* or pig, till a Muhammadan of rank took pity on the stream, and, emptying into it a cart-load of sugar, gained for it a more honourable appellation. The fall from east to west is so gradual that, except when in flood, the Narbadá creeps slowly along its narrow bed of basalt, with precipitous banks on each side; but the Sher and Shakar are mountain torrents throughout. With their tributaries, the Máchá-Rewá and Chitá-Rewá, they rise in the Sátpuras, and pour through rocky channels, fringed on either hand with a series of ravines. Here and there, however, their beds open out into small oases of rich alluvial deposit, which are cultivated like gardens with the finer kinds of sugar-cane and vegetables. The Sonar resembles these streams; but the Dúdhí and Bárú-Rewá flow along sandy channels, utilized only for an occasional melon bed. All these rivers, including the Narbadá itself, rise with extraordinary rapidity in time of flood; and even the little Singhrí has more than once inundated the town of Kandelí, and caused serious loss of life and property.

History.—The history of Narsinghpur is the history of an outlying District. The great Sangrám Sáh, the forty-eighth Rájá of the Garhá-Mandlá line (*see* MANDLA), extended his dominion over Narsinghpur and the surrounding country, and built the fortress of Chaurágarh. Situated on the crest of the outer range of the Sátpura table-land, embracing within its circle two hills, and supplied by numerous tanks and wells, this stronghold is less a fort than a huge fortified camp; and it has been the theatre of most of the historic scenes enacted in Narsinghpur.

After the defeat and heroic death of Queen Durgávatí in 1564, Asaf Khán stormed Chaurágarh, and seized the enormous booty of 100 jars of gold coin and 1000 elephants. Probably this expedition first opened out the valley to the foreign immigration which has reclaimed it from barbarism. In 1593, when the Bundela invasion under Jújhár Singh took place, Prem Náráyan sustained a siege of some months in Chaurágarh; and it was not till he had been treacherously assassinated that the fortress fell. At Chaurágarh, also, Narhar Sá, the last of the Garhá-Mandlá line, took refuge when pressed by Morájí, the Maráthá Governor of Ságar (Saugor). The Gond prince was betrayed, and ended his days in imprisonment at Kurái, while his dominions fell into the hands of his conquerors in 1781. Their administration lasted for seventeen years, and is only remarkable as having caused a considerable influx of Hindu immigrants from the north. The Ságar Governors were in their turn expelled by the powerful Bhonsla Rájás. Before occupying Narsinghpur, the Nágpur army overran Hoshangábád; and that District, left utterly defenceless, was periodically plundered by the Pindárís and the Nawáb of Bhopál until 1802. The distress thus occasioned resulted, in 1803 and 1804, in actual famine, and forced a

number of people into the more secure and prosperous District of Narsinghpur. In the years 1807 to 1810, similar accessions were received from Bhopál, which had been ravaged by Amír Khán and his Pindáris.

Thus recruited, Narsinghpur attained a degree of prosperity which it had never known before Unfortunately, this happy period proved transient. In 1807, Narsinghpur and Hoshangabád Districts were made over to Nawab Sadík Alí Khán, for the partial support of the frontier force Soon afterwards, the remittances promised him from Nágpur began to fail, while the campaigns he waged against Amír Khán involved him in further financial difficulties, which gave rise to increased taxation, speedily followed by all kinds of irregular extortion When main force failed, *pátels* or village head men were tempted by titles and dresses of honour to bid against each other, while, to meet the case of merchants and others unconnected with land, courts of justice were created, whose whole staff consisted of a guard of soldiers and a few ready witnesses The only crime of which they took cognizance was adultery, and they threw on the wealthy defendant the burden of establishing his innocence

British rule in Narsinghpur dates from 1818 In November of the preceding year, on the first intelligence of the treachery of Apa Sáhib, Brigadier-General Hardyman was directed by Lord Hastings to advance his force from the frontier of Rewa in the direction of Nagpur On hearing of the success at Sitábaldi on the 16th December, he resolved to take up a position near Gadarwára, to cut off the fugitives from Nágpur Reinforcements were accordingly sent to a detachment already stationed at Gádarwárá under Lieutenant Colonel Macmorine, who was thus enabled to attack and defeat the Srinagar garrison, consisting of 3000 foot and 4000 horse Chaurágarh, however still held out, and was only evacuated on the approach of the left division of the army under Brigadier General Watson The country was then in an exhausted condition, and the recent disorders had nearly ruined all except the predatory castes Of the three principal Pindari leaders of the 'Sindhia Sháhi,' two—Chitú, a chief who led 5000 horsemen, and Karím Khan, who commanded more than 1000—formerly held possessions in the District Even in Captain Sleeman's time a gang of Thags or professional stranglers lived within 400 yards of his court house, and the groves of Mandesar, 12 miles from Narsinghpur, formed one of the greatest *bels* or places of slaughter in India These facts, however, only came to light in 1831 In dealing with the District, Sleeman was strengthened by the wise liberality of Mr Molony, the chief civil authority of the Province, and each successive settlement of the land revenue lightened the burdens of the agricultural class, till in 1835 they were in a position to reap the full benefits of the first long term settlement, which was made on terms of great liberality. Secure at once

60 lbs. Rotation of crops is not practised; but when the soil shows signs of exhaustion, gram or some other pulse is substituted for wheat for two or three years. Cultivators dare not leave their lands fallow, even for a single year; for the ground would be immediately occupied by rank *kāns* grass, which no exertions can eradicate till it has run its course of about ten years. Irrigation and manure are used only for sugar-cane and vegetables.

Of the total adult agricultural population in 1881 (115,530, or 31·64 per cent. of the District population), 2455 were returned as landed proprietors, 17,061 as possessing rights of occupancy, 10,759 as tenants-at-will, 42,857 as assistants in home cultivation, 39,716 as agricultural labourers, while the remainder is made up of graziers, tenants of unspecified status, estate agents, etc. Area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 7 acres. Of the total area of the District, 1916 square miles, only 1708 square miles are assessed for Government revenue. Of these, 979 square miles are cultivated, 193 square miles are cultivable, and 536 square miles are uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses, £44,716, or an average of 1s. 5½d. per cultivated acre. Total rental paid by the cultivators, £95,894, or an average of 3s. 0⅞d. per cultivated acre. The rent rates per acre for the different qualities of land are returned as follows:—Land suited for wheat, 5s. 6d.; for rice, 4s. 3d.; for inferior grain, 1s. 7½d.; for sugar-cane, 5s. 6d.; for cotton, 3s. 6d.; for oil-seeds, 4s. 4d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. in 1881 were as follows:—Wheat, 5s. 3d.; rice, 8s. 10d.; and cotton, 38s. 2d. The wages per diem of a skilled labourer average about 9d.: of an unskilled labourer, 4½d. to 5d. a day.

Commerce and Trade.—Narsinghpur and Gádarwára are the only trading towns of the District. A considerable traffic, however, chiefly in English cloth, lac ornaments, and copper utensils, takes place at an extensive fair, which is held yearly in November and December on the sands of the Narbadá at Barmán Ghat, 14 miles from Narsinghpur. Hitherto, the only export of consequence has been cotton. The manufactures consist of brass and bell-metal vessels at Chichli: a kind of stamped cotton fabric at Gadarwará; and *tasar* silk and saddle-cloths at Narsinghpur. The mineral resources of the District give rise to an important industry among the Gond inhabitants. At Mohpani, 11 miles from the Gadarwárá railway station, excavations for coal have been made with success in the gorge by which the Chitá-Rewá leaves the Sátpura table-land. The method of subterranean work pursued is that known by the name of 'pillar and stall;' and the produce is a strong non-coking coal, fairly effective as a steam fuel. A small vein in Sihorá Ghát, on the Sher river, also supplies coal, said to be hard and jetty, and free from pyrites of iron. The most valuable iron-

pits are on the north of the Narbada at Tendukhera, and produce ore of excellent quality From the exclusive employment of charcoal in smelting, the town is free from smoke, and only the ceaseless clink of hammers distinguishes it from the agricultural villages of the valley All these mines are leased by the Narbadá Coal and Iron Company

Besides the high road from Jabalpur towards Bombay, which runs through the District from east to west the chief lines of communication are the route northwards across the Narbada and through an opening in the hills towards Sagar the road southwards by Srinagar towards Seoni, and the road by Harai to Chhindwara. None of these roads has yet been metalled and they are only partially bridged, so that they become impracticable during the rainy season The Great Indian Peninsula Railway passes through the District from east to west for a total length of 70 miles with stations at Chhindwára Korakbel Narsinghpur Kareli Sihora Mandesar and Gádarwará During the rains, the Narbada Dudhí Shakar, and Sher afford means of transit by water for 224 miles

Administration.—In 1861, Narsinghpur was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner with Assistants and *tahsildárs* Total revenue in 1876-77, £54 584 of which the land tax yielded £42 269 Total cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £13 362 In 1883-84, the total revenue of Narsinghpur was £62 181, of which the land tax contributed £42 305 Total cost of District officials and police £12 156 Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts within the District (1883) 7, magistrates 17 Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 32 miles average distance, 10 miles Number of regular police District and town 360, costing £4853 being 1 policeman to about every 5 square miles and to every 1023 inhabitants There was also in 1883 a rural police force or village watch of 1127 *chaukidárs* The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 86, of whom 6 were females The total cost of the jail was £508 The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection in 1883 was 88, attended by 4542 pupils

Medical Aspects.—In 1876, the average temperature in the shade was returned from observations taken at the civil station of Narsinghpur as follows.—May highest reading 111° F, lowest 92°, July, highest 86°, lowest 74°, December, highest 78°, lowest 52° The average annual rainfall for a period of 25 years ending 1881 amounted to 46 84 inches. In 1883 the rainfall was 65 88 inches, or 19 04 inches above the average The prevailing diseases of the District are malarious fevers and bowel complaints, but cholera and small pox occasionally prove fatal to large numbers In 1883, three charitable [illegible] ded

medical relief to 17,416 in-door and out-door patients. Vital statistics showed in the same year a death-rate of 35·95 per thousand, the mean of the preceding five years being 37·76 per thousand. [For further information regarding Narsinghpur, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant, pp. 354-370 (Nágpur, 1870); the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Narsinghpur.—The eastern *tahsíl* or Sub-division of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces. Area, 1042 square miles, with 1 town and 538 villages, and 41,922 houses. Population (1872) 148,580; (1881) 175,336, namely, males 89,343, and females 85,993; increase of population since 1872, 26,756, or 18·0 per cent. in nine years. Average density of population, 168·3 persons per square mile. The total adult agricultural population (male and female) in 1881 numbered 48,404, or 27·6 per cent. of the whole Sub-divisional population; the average area of available cultivated and cultivable land being 8 acres per adult agriculturist. Of the total area of the *tahsíl* (1042 square miles), 135 square miles are held revenue free; while 907 square miles are assessed for Government revenue, of which 483 square miles are returned as under cultivation, and 95 square miles as available for cultivation, the remainder being uncultivable waste. Total amount of Government land revenue, including local rates and cesses levied on the land, £23,263, or an average of 1s. 4⅝d. per cultivated acre. Amount of rent, including cesses, paid by the cultivators, £46,514, or an average of 2s. 11⅞d. per cultivated acre. Narsinghpur Sub-division contained in 1883, 5 civil and 10 criminal courts (including the District head-quarter courts), with 4 police circles (*thánás*), and 10 outpost stations (*chaukis*), a regular police force numbering 121 men, and 649 village *chaukidárs*.

Narsinghpur (with *Kandelí*).—Chief town of Narsinghpur District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 22° 56′ 35″ N., and long. 79° 14′ 45″ E., on the river Singrí, which has been dammed up to supply the town with water. The town was formerly called Gádariá-kherá, or, under the Maráthás, when it became the head-quarters of their force in the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, Chhotá Gádarwárá. It took its present name after the erection of a large temple to Narsinha, one of the incarnations of Vishnu. It is an important entrepôt for the grain and cotton trade of the Narbadá valley. Population (1872) 12,111; (1881) 10,222, namely, males 5134, and females 5088. Hindus number 7816; Muhammadans, 1846; Kabírpanthís, 34; Jains, 316; Christians, 69; Pársís, 3; and aboriginal tribes, 138. Municipal revenue (1882-83), £967, of which £815 was derived from taxation (octroi duties); average incidence of taxation, 1s. 7⅛d. per

head of town population. The chief Government buildings are the courts and offices of the Deputy Commissioner and the police superintendent. The town has also a jail, a dispensary, a travellers bungalow, and a native travellers' rest house, besides a post office, well attended District school, two private schools, and a police school

Narsinghpur —Native State of Orissa Bengal, lying between 20° 24′ and 20° 37 N lat, and between 85° and 85° 16 15″ E long Bounded on the north by a range of forest clad mountains, which separate it from Angul and Hindol, on the east by Barambá on the south and south west by the Mahánadi river, and on the west by Angul Area, 199 square miles, with 191 villages, and a total population (1881) of 32,583 souls, namely, males 16,378, and females 16,205 Hindus number 32,473, and Muhammadans 110 There is a sprinkling of aboriginal Kandhs and Taalas in the State, but their numbers are included in the general Hindu population, and they are not shown separately The principal seat of local commerce is Kanpur, with bi weekly markets, and trade in grain, cotton, oil seeds and sugar-cane The State was founded about 300 years ago by a Rájput, who slew the former chief *It yields a yearly revenue of £1600, and pays a tribute of £145 to* the British Government The State contains several schools, the Rajá's militia consists of a force of 583 men, and the police is 196 strong

Narsinghpur — Principal village of Narsinghpur State, Orissa, Bengal, and the residence of the Rájá Lat 20° 28′ N, long 85° 7′ 1″ E.

Narsipur.—*Taluk* in Hassan District, Mysore State Area, 476 square miles, of which 37 are cultivated Population (1871) 42,345, (1881) 32,117, namely, 15,518 males and 16,599 females. Hindus number 31,268, Muhammadans, 842, and Christians, 7 Land revenue (1881–82), exclusive of water rates, £5380, or 4s 5d. per cultivated acre Expenditure on internal *táluk* administration for 1881–82, £765 Watered by the Hemavati, and by the irrigation channels drawn off from that river In 1883 the *taluk* contained 2 criminal courts, police circles (*thanás*), 7, regular police, 61 men, village watch (*chaukidars*), 453 Total revenue, £14,763

Narsipur (known as *Hole Narsipur*, to distinguish it from Tiruma kudalu Narsipur) —Town in Hassan District, Mysore State, situated in lat 12° 47′ N, and long 76° 16 40″ E, on the right bank of the Hemavati river, 21 miles south east of Hassan town, head quarters of the Narsipur *taluk* Population (1881) 4647 The fort was built in 1168 by a local chief called Narasinha Nayak, and annexed to Mysore in 1667 It is the residence of the *guru* of the Madhava Bráhmans of the Uttaráji branch Flourishing manufactures of cotton cloth and gunny bags

Narsipur (known as *Tiruma-kúdalu*). — *Táluk* or Sub-division of Mysore District, Mysore State. Area, 377 square miles, of which 157 are cultivated. Population (1871) 82,311; (1881) 67,372, namely, 33,356 males and 34,016 females. Hindus number 65,190; Muhammadans, 2180; and Christians, 2. The *táluk* is extensively irrigated by channels drawn off from the bed of the Káveri (Cauvery) river by anicuts or dams. It was formerly known under the name of Talkad. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 7; regular police, 67 men; village watch (*chaukidárs*), 278. Revenue, £16,079.

Narsipur (known as *Tiruma-kúdalu*, or 'The most holy Union,' to distinguish it from HOLE NARSIPUR). — Village in Mysore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 12° 12′ 40″ N., and long. 76° 57′ 21″ E., 18 miles south-east of Mysore city, at the confluence of the Kabbani river with the Káveri (Cauvery). Population (1881) 1419. Since 1868, head-quarters of the Talkad *táluk*, now known as Narsipur *táluk*. A sacred spot, containing two ancient temples. One dedicated to Vishnu, under his name of Gunjá Narasinha, was repaired by the Dalawái of Mysore about 300 years ago, and now has an annual allowance from Government of £96. The other, situated between the junction of the two rivers, and dedicated to Agasteswara, receives £182 a year.

Nárukot. — Native State in the District of the Panch Mahals, Gujarát, Bombay Presidency. Area, 143 square miles. Population (1881) 6440, distributed in 52 villages, and occupying 1313 houses. Hindus number 4216; Muhammadans, 57; and 'others,' 2167. Nárukot is enclosed by the lands of Chhotá Udepur, Rewá Kántha Agency. The ruling family are Kolís, and the inhabitants are of two tribes, Kolís and Náikdás. The latter, who are a turbulent race, closely allied to the Bhíls, have on several occasions by their unruly habits given considerable trouble to the Government, but of late years have been remarkable for peace and good order. The country is wild, covered with low hills and thick forests. There is a fair supply of water, chiefly from ponds and wells, whose number is being gradually increased. In 1874, specimens of lead-ore were obtained; but in the opinion of the Superintendent of the Geological Survey they were not rich enough to encourage further search. The soil is capable of yielding a larger out-turn and better crops than it does under the present rude tillage. Of the total area, one-fourth is uncultivable, being mostly hilly; one-fourth is cultivable waste; and about one-half is cultivated. In 1878, a considerable area of cultivated land was thrown up, owing to the death, desertion, and insolvency of cultivators, and the loss of their live stock brought about by two successive bad seasons. The local cultivators are Náikdás and Kolís, who formerly lived chiefly by wood-

cutting They are beginning to settle to more regular tillage and to the use of the plough

The Naikdas of Narukot used to be notorious for their predatory habits until 1826, when the British Government took over their management from the Gaekwar, but on furnishing security for good behaviour, they were pardoned and left unmolested In 1829, however, on the office of the Political Agent being abolished the Gaekwar's Government again took up the management, but so oppressed the people that in 1837 they broke out in revolt, and a British force had to be engaged to suppress it. The chief then offered half of his revenues to be taken under the protection of Government, which offer at first refused, was afterwards accepted to provide funds for the management and recovery of the State The people soon quieted down but unsettled by the movements of the rebels in 1858 they rose and attacked several forts They again rose in 1868 to establish a Naikda kingdom, but were dispersed, and the leaders caught and hanged Since then there has been no disturbance JAMBUGHORA is the largest place in the State The chief resides at Jhotwar, a village half a mile to the north west, and pays an annual tribute of £4 to the Gaekwar of Baroda The estate is managed by the British Government who take half the total revenue (estimated at £600 annually) the remaining half going to the chief under the agreement made in 1839 The State contains a dispensary and a vernacular school The Collector of the Panch Mahals District is the Political Agent

Narwár (*Nerwar*)—Town in Gwalior State, Central India, situated in lat 25° 39′ [illegible]″ N, and long 77° 56′ 57″ E, on the right bank of the river Sind, on the route from Kalpi to Kotah, 152 miles south west of the former and 169 north east of the latter, 44 miles south of Gwalior city. Narwar is a town of great antiquity and although now decayed, was once a place of much splendour Nishida, which occupied the site of the present Narwar, was founded by a Kachwaha Rájá in 295 A.D, and in the 9th century, the Kachwahas of Narwar are mentioned as marching to the defence of Chittor The fort, a fine and massive structure, was built, according to Ferishta, in the middle of the 13th century, and was soon after captured by Nasir ud din, after a siege of several months In 1506 it was again blockaded and taken by Sikandar Lodí, King of Delhi, and, some time later, it appears to have fallen again into the hands of the Hindus Towards the end of last century the Marathas gained possession of Narwar, and it was guaranteed to Daulat Rao Sindhia by the treaty of Allahábad in 1805 In 1844 it was, with the annexed territory, assessed by the Government of Gwalior at £22,500 a year The river overflows annually during the rains, leaving numerous swamps round the town Magnetic iron ore is found in the neighbouring hills

Nasarpur.—Town in Alahyar-jo-Tando *táluk*, Hála Sub-division, Haidarábád District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 3206. Trade insignificant. Small cloth manufacture. Police lines, rest-house, post-office, and vernacular school. The town is of very ancient construction, and said to have been built in 989 A.D.

Násik (*Nasika* of Ptolemy).—British District in the Bombay Presidency, lying between 19° 34′ and 20° 52′ N. lat., and between 73° 18′ and 75° E. long. Area, 5940 square miles. Population in 1881, 781,206 persons. Bounded on the north by the District of Khándesh; on the east by the Nizám's Dominions; on the south by Ahmadnagar; and on the west by Thána District, the territories of Dharampur, Surgána, and the Khándesh *Dángs*. The administrative head-quarters are at NASIK town.

Physical Aspects.—With the exception of a few villages in the west, the whole District is situated on a table-land, at an elevation of from 1300 to 2000 feet above the sea. The western portion, from north to south, called *Dáng*, is generally much divided by hills, and intersected by ravines; and only the simplest kind of cultivation is possible. The eastern portion, called *Desh*, is open, fertile, and well cultivated. The Chándor range of hills forms the watershed of the District, and divides the valley of the Girna from the valley of the Godávari. It stretches from Peint east into the Nizám's Dominions, and is crossed by several fair passes. The most important of these takes its name from the range, and is traversed by a first-class bridged and metalled road. East of Rahudi, the Chándor range ceases to be a barrier. All streams of any size to the south of that range are tributaries of the Godávari—the principal of these being the Darna, Kádwa, Deo, and Marálgin. To the north of the watershed, the Girna and its tributary the Mosam flow through fertile valleys into the Tápti. With the exception of the Sahyádri mountains, which run north and south, the general direction of the hill ranges in Násik is from west to east. The District contains several hill forts, the scenes of many engagements during the Maráthá wars.

The geological formation is trap—beds of basalt alternating, seemingly quite horizontally with amygdaloid, the ridges of the hills everywhere capped with compact basalt, and the slopes below the upper basaltic escarpment formed by the weathering of the softer amygdaloid. No minerals are worked. Except in one or two Sub-divisions, where black soil is found, the soil is poor and stony. The forests which formerly covered the Sahyádri hills have nearly disappeared, but every effort is being made to prevent further destruction and to re-clothe some of the hills. The forests that remain cover 1600 square miles, but contain few timber-trees of value; on the other hand, there is a good deal of valuable coppice teak, and much wood useful both for house-building and firewood. The District generally is very destitute of trees. Of

wild animals, tigers, leopards, bears, antelopes, and spotted deer are found

History.—From the 2nd century B.C. to the 2nd century A.D. the District was under rulers, notably the Andhrabrityas, who patronized Buddhism, and some of whom are supposed to have had a capital at Paithan, 110 miles below Násik. Among other early Hindu dynasties were the Chálukyas, the Rathods, and the Chandor and Deogiri Jadavas. The Muhammadan period lasted from 1295 to 1760, during which the District was successively under the Viceroys of Deogiri (Daulatábád), the Bahmanis of Kulbarga, the Nizam Shahis of Ahmadnagar, and the Mughals of Aurangábád. The Maratha ascendency lasted from 1760 until 1818, when the British power crushed the last of the Peshwas. Since then, twice only has the peace of the District been disturbed—once in 1843, when serious breaches of order arose on the slaughter of a cow by some Europeans in Násik; and again in 1857, when some Rohillás, Arabs, and Bhíls gathered under the outlaw Bhágojí.

Population.—The Census returns of 1872 disclosed a total population of 737,755; that of 1881 a total of 781,206 persons, residing in 8 towns and 1625 villages, and in 122,816 occupied houses; unoccupied houses were returned at 29,736; density of the population, 131.51 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 0.2; houses per square mile, 25.6; persons per village, 472; persons per house, 6.36. Classified according to sex, there were 397,404 males and 383,802 females; proportion of males, 50.8 per cent. Classified according to age, there were—under 15 years, males 169,846, and females 161,401; total children, 331,247, or 42.42 per cent. of the population; and of 15 years and upwards there were 227,558 males and 222,401 females; total adults 449,959, or 57.58 per cent. Religious divisions—Hindus, 683,579; Musalmáns, 35,294; Parsis, 288; Christians, 2644; Jews, 101; Jains, 7609; Sikhs, 2; Buddhists, 2; and aboriginal tribes, 51,687, almost all Bhíls.

The Hindus were divided into the following main castes and social distinctions:—Bráhmans, 29,053; Rajputs, 7003; Berads, 291; Bhandaris, 56; Chamárs, 10,003; Darjís, 7492; Dhangars, 14,889; Dhobis, 3029; Nais, 7418; Jangams, 466; Kunbis, 276,359; Kolis, 78,558; Koshtís, 2663; Kumbhars, 4508; Lingáyats, 1608; Lohars, 3877; Mális, 25,094; Mangs, 6323; Dhers, 70,351; Sonars, 9540; Sutárs, 7427; Telis, 11,158; and Banjárás, 29,393. The Muhammadans were divided thus—Patháns, 5089; Sayyids, 1794; Shaikhs, 27,641; and 'others,' 770. Of the 2644 Christians, 1281 were Episcopalians, 1021 Roman Catholics, and 147 Presbyterians.

As regards occupation, the males were distributed by the Census of 1881 into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 12,500; (2) commercial class, including bankers, merchants,

carriers, etc., 2897; (3) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 5234; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 166,095; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 39,542; and (6) indefinite and non-productive class, comprising male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 171,136.

Of the 1633 towns and villages in Násik District, 558 contained in 1881 less than 200 inhabitants; 656 from two to five hundred; 288 from five hundred to one thousand; 86 from one to two thousand; 27 from two to three thousand; 13 from three to five thousand; 2 from five to ten thousand; 1 from ten to fifteen thousand; 1 from fifteen to twenty thousand; and 1 from twenty to fifty thousand. The towns with a population over 5000 are—NASIK (24,101); DEOLALI, cantonment (variable, according to troops cantoned *en route* to Bombay); YEOLA (17,685); MALEGAON (10,622); MALEGAON, cantonment (variable); SINNAR (7960); and IGATPURI (6306); of which places 5 are municipalities. Trimbak, also a municipality, has a population of 3839. The total municipal income of the District (1882-83) is £8795, levied from a municipal population of 70,879, the incidence of municipal taxation being 2s. 3d. per head of the municipal population.

It is characteristic of the population to collect into small compact villages. Except the village dealers, carpenters, smiths, and a few others, traders and artisans are almost exclusively confined to the towns. The labourers also constitute generally an urban class, inasmuch as there are not many cultivators who are sufficiently well-to-do to employ hired labour. The village houses range in respectability from a three-storied building (*vádá*) to the ordinary Indian hovel, here called *jhopdi*. The *vádá* or mansion consists of a hollow square building, of which the rooms and offices form the four sides, and of which the centre quadrangle, open to the sky, has in a few cases shrubs and a fountain, but more often forms stabling for the cattle. Part of the roof left flat and protected by a parapet serves as a pleasant lounge when the heat of the day is over. On many roofs a few steps will lead to a raised platform commanding a view of the neighbourhood, and open to any breeze that may be blowing. The large central room of the house is used as parlour and dining-room. The smaller chambers are the cooking-room, store-room, lying-in room, and family shrine. The *zanána* or women's quarters are generally separated from the common dwelling. Furniture is scarce, but it is becoming customary to provide a chair for chance visitors of distinction. A swing is common, and usually there is a wooden bench. Wooden stools and numerous cooking pots complete the equipment. Daily life is much the same among labourers and *inámdars*, who are the landowners or gentry of the District. All classes rise with the sun and work until noon. Then

they rest for an hour or two, taking a meal and a *siesta* Work is re commenced at two, and goes on until dusk, when another meal is taken Bed time is between nine and ten

The inhabitants of the western villages, at the foot of the Sahyádri hills, are to a great extent migratory Their poor lands seldom yield crops for more than two years at a time, and often in the hot weather —their stock of grain running low—they are compelled to retire to the forest and support themselves by felling and carrying timber, feeding on fish, berries, and even roots Every caste, from a Brahman to a Bhíl, forms a more or less complete community The chief hill tribes are Kolis, Bhíls, Thákurs, Wárlis, and Kathodis. The Kolis are more civilised and more generally engaged in agriculture than the rest, the Bhíls are poor cultivators, subsisting chiefly by gathering and selling forest produce — timber, honey, and lac, the Thakurs and Warlis culti vate a little, but almost entirely by the hoe Thakodis or catechu makers, are the worst off, and poorest looking of all these tribes The Marwáris, most of whom are said to have come into the District during the last fifty or sixty years seem gradually to drop their peculiarities, and are now scarcely to be distinguished from other Hindus They have taken to wearing the Deccan turban and ordinary shoes, and are clean in their dress and habits they even wear their hair as other Hindus and speak Marathi the common language of the District They engross the trade of money lending The Musalmans are nearly all of foreign origin, and are for the most part settled in towns Many of the Sunnis, who numbered (1881) 34,887, are messengers and policemen others are employed in weaving, agriculture, and as labourers The Shiás, who numbered (1881) 389, are more frequently shopkeepers

Agriculture—Agriculture supported (1881) 511 712 persons, or 65 5 per cent of the population, only 301 416 were agricultural workers. Of the total area of the District (5940 square miles), 3573 square miles were cultivated in 1881, of which 179 square miles were non revenue paying, the remaining 3394 square miles, together with 630 square miles, the area cultivable but unoccupied, were assessed for revenue, making a total of 4024 square miles, the uncultivable area was 1737 square miles Total amount of Government assessment, including local rates and cesses on land, £142,585, average incidence, including local rates and cesses, 1s 2d per cultivated acre Average area of cultivable and uncultivated land per agricultural worker, 8 9 acres The land of the District may be divided in four classes—the reddish black mould along rivers, a light black soil higher up, a brown soil, stiffer and less deep, found on the higher lands near the Ghâts, and highest and lightest of all, light brown or red, often strewn with boulders, and mixed with lime A second crop is not often raised. Manure

is invariably used for all garden crops, but rarely for others. Over 47,000 acres are irrigated, the cost per acre varying from 2s. to £10. Irrigation is generally practised where water is obtainable near the surface, and where a dam can be thrown across the streams and rivers. The main works are the Pálkher, Vadáli, and Ojhar Támbat canals, the first-named being newly built at a cost of £14,872.

Out of 3,389,838 acres, the total area of Government cultivable land, 2,258,197 acres, or 66·61 per cent., were taken up for cultivation in 1881-82; of these, 340,393 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the remaining 1,924,213 acres under actual cultivation (6409 acres of which were twice cropped), grain occupied 1,310,643, or 68·11 per cent.; pulses, 154,762, or 8·04 per cent.; oil-seeds, 168,876, or 8·77 per cent.; fibres, 23,862, or 1·24 per cent.; and miscellaneous crops, 266,070 acres, or 13·82 per cent. *Bájra* is the staple food of the people. Vineyards are found in Násik and Chánder Sub-divisions. In localities where there is good black soil, wheat, cotton, gram, and *tuver*, and where water is available, sugar-cane, grapes, figs, guavas, and plantains are grown. Potatoes were introduced into the District about 1837, and though at first disliked by the people, are now in request. On poor soil *joár* and *bájra* are cultivated. In 1882-83 the agricultural stock amounted to 64,080 ploughs, 14,361 carrying carts, 11,719 riding carts, 202,883 bullocks, 195,372 cows, 56,663 buffaloes, 12,640 horses, 3877 asses, 216,749 sheep and goats.

Natural Calamities.—The great Durgádeví famine, lasting from 1396 to 1407, is said to have caused as much injury in Násik as in the Southern Deccan; and the memory of it has never been obliterated. Famines are also locally recorded as having occurred in 1460, 1520, and 1629, but the severest of which record remains was the famine of 1791-92. Liberal remissions by the Peshwá, the prohibition of grain exportation, and the regulation of prices, alleviated the misery. In 1802-04, the ravages of the Pindárís caused such scarcity, that a pound of grain is said to have cost 1s. 4d. Ten thousand people died of hunger and its incidental maladies. The scarcity of 1876-77 caused great distress. Special measures of relief were taken, and at one period nearly 18,000 persons were employed on roads. In the villages two kinds of tickets were given to the people, tin and paper. The holders of tin tickets were allowed full rations of one pound of cooked bread and pulse, while to paper ticket-holders a smaller quantity was issued. Children were given half a pound. The tickets were issued at the relief works up to half-past seven in the morning, the late comers getting paper tickets. The total expenditure on famine relief during the continuance of the scarcity was reckoned at £42,967. Every now and then in the District a frost destroys or damages such crops as plantains, grapes, etc., and hardly a year

occurs in which some part of the District does not suffer from want of rain Partial inundations frequently occur, and the flood of 1872—when the river at Násik rose over 21 feet above its ordinary level—caused great damage Recently, locusts have committed serious ravages

Railways, etc —The communications of the District have been improved by the opening of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway in 1861, and by the opening of the local Dhond and Manmad State Railway in 1878 The former line enters Nasik at Igatpuri, and on the 110 miles for which it passes through the District there are 11 stations The latter railway forms a chord line connecting Manmád in Nasik District, 162 miles from Bombay north-east section, with Dhond in Poona District, 167 miles from Bombay south east section of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway This chord line is 145 miles long, with 3 stations in Násik District Besides the railway lines running through the District, there are about 468 miles of good roads

Trade, Manufactures, etc—Cloth and silk goods are woven chiefly at Yeola, and thence sent as far as Bombay, Poona Sátára, and Sholapur The value of the annual exports from Yeola is calculated to amount to 15 *lakhs* of rupees (£150 000) The silk industry at Yeola supports 4000 families This industry under the Muhammadans and Maráthas was a monopoly, which was set aside by a decision of the Bombay High Court in 1864 Blanket weaving prospers in the District, but a former industry of paper making has died out Copper, brass, and silver vessels are largely manufactured at Násik itself, and thence sent to Bombay, Poona, and other places. The principal articles of export are grain, oil seeds, molasses, a little cotton cloth and silk goods, hemp copper, brass, and silver ware A great quantity of grain, chiefly wheat, is bought up by agents of Bombay firms, at Lasalgáum, on the railway, 146 miles from Bombay, where there is a permanent constant market. Nearly every day from February to May about 500 carts and as many more pack bullocks, come laden with wheat and other grain, chiefly from the Nizám s Dominions Some of these take away salt There is also a considerable export of garden produce, onions, garlic, and betel leaves The chief imports are raw silk, cotton thread, copper and brass, sugar, groceries, and salt

Before the introduction of the railway, there was (chiefly along the Bombay and Agra and the Ahmadnagar and Poona roads) a large carrying trade through the District. The Banjáras or Lamáns, and others in whose hands this traffic rested, have suffered much by the change Such of them as remain have taken to agriculture. The chief traffic with the interior proceeds through the ancient Thal pass on its way to Bombay

Weekly markets are held at every town, and in many of the larger villages. Besides these weekly markets, fairs are held each year in connection with certain temples and religious places, which partake very much of the nature of the markets, but are larger, and the variety of goods displayed is greater. They usually last for a week or a fortnight, and attract great numbers of people, even from considerable distances. In 1882-83 the total value of the exports of the District was £250,000. The rate of interest generally varies from 6 to 18 per cent. per annum; but in the case of poor cultivators, it is sometimes as high as 24 per cent. Unskilled labourers earn 4½d. a day, bricklayers and carpenters 1s. 6d. The current prices of the chief articles of food during 1882-83 were, for a rupee (2s.)—*joár* (Indian millet), 47 lbs.; wheat, 24 lbs.; rice, 26 lbs.; and *dál* (split peas), 24 lbs.

Administration.—The revenue raised in 1881-82, under all heads—imperial, local, and municipal—amounted to £228,505, or, on a population of 781,206, an incidence of 5s. 10d. per head. The land-tax forms the principal source of revenue, yielding £141,540, or 61·91 per cent. of the total revenue. Other important items are stamps, excise, and local funds. In 1882-83 the land revenue was returned at £100,800; stamps, £17,400; excise, £10,500; and licence-tax, £3180. The District local funds, created since 1863 for works of public utility and rural education, yielded in 1882-83 a total of £9170. There are 6 municipalities, with an aggregate population of 69,926 persons. Their receipts are returned at £8648, and the incidence of taxation varied from 5d. to 3s. 6d. per head. In 1882-83 the municipal receipts were £8795.

The administration of the District in revenue matters is entrusted to a Collector and 6 Assistants, of whom 4 are covenanted civilians. For judicial purposes, Násik is included in the jurisdiction of the Judge of Thána. There are 7 civil courts, which decided 11,801 suits in 1876, and 35,300 in 1882-83; 33 officers share the administration of criminal justice. The total strength of the regular police for the protection of person and property consisted, in 1881-82, of 729 officers and men, giving 1 man to every 1071 of the population. The total cost was £13,605, equal to £2, 5s. 9d. per square mile of area, and 4d. per head of the population. The number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 1581, being 1 person to every 492 of the population.

Education has widely spread of late years. In 1855-56 there were only 17 schools, with 1268 pupils. In 1881-82 there were 251 schools, with 12,744 names on the rolls, or an average of 1 school to every 6·5 inhabited villages. The Census of 1881 returned 8664 males and 257 females as under instruction; and 20,820 males and 469 females as able to read and write. In 1883 there were—schools, 293; scholars,

14,225 There is, on an average, one village with a school to each 24 square miles There are 3 libraries and reading rooms Two vernacular newspapers were published weekly in the District in 1881-82

Medical Aspects—The rainfall is liable to great variation according to the distance from the Gháts The average rainfall at Nasik town during the five years ending 1881 was 29½ inches The prevailing diseases are fever and skin affections In 1881-82, six dispensaries afforded medical relief to 120 in-door and 41,663 out door patients, and 21,684 persons were vaccinated Vital statistics showed a death rate of 22 43 per thousand [For further information regarding Násik, see the *Gazetteer of the Bombay Presidency*, published under Government orders, and compiled by Mr J M Campbell, C S, vol xvi, Násik District (Government Central Press, Bombay, 1883) Also the *Bombay Census Report* for 1881, and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bombay Government]

Násik.—*Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency* Area, 465 square miles, containing 2 towns and 134 villages Population (1872) 92,177, (1881) 94,980, namely, 48 513 males and 46,467 females Hindus numbered 85 644 Muhammadans, 5326, and 'others,' 4010 Land revenue (1882) £7940

The Sub division is situated in the south west of the District Bounded on the north by the Peint, Dindori, and Niphád, on the east by Niphád and Sinnar, on the south by Igatpuri, and on the west by Thána District. The general character of the surface is undulating, and the west is hilly In the Darna valley the soil is deep and rich The Bombay Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) Railway and the Bombay Agra high road traverse the Sub division Climate varies, but on the whole is healthy, average rainfall, 27 inches Water supply good, except near the Sahyádris Besides the Darna, the Godávari waters the Sub division

In 1880-81 there were 5982 holdings, with an average area of 28 acres, paying an average assessment of £2, 16s, incidence of the land tax, about 3s per head In 1880-81, of 147,649 acres held for tillage, 24,196 acres were fallow or under grass Of the remaining 123,453 acres, 1888 acres were twice cropped. Of 125,341 acres, the area under actual cultivation, grain crops occupied 88,131 acres, pulses, 17,180 acres, oil seeds, 16,974 acres, fibres, 400, all under brown hemp—cotton is not grown, and miscellaneous crops 2656 acres, of which 1102 acres were under sugar cane In 1883 the Sub division contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, police circles (*thanás*), 3, regular police, 87 men, village watch (*chaukidárs*), 154.

Násik. — Chief town of Násik District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 19° 59′ 45″ N, and long 73° 49′ 5″ E, 4 miles

north-west of the Násik road station of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway. Among Hindus, Násik is considered a spot of special interest and holiness. About 30 miles from its source, the river Godávari, flowing eastwards through a group of small hills, turns sharply to the south, and, after passing in that direction for about a mile, again swerves suddenly towards the east. Here, on both sides of the river, but chiefly on its right or south-eastern bank, lies the town of Násik. Along the right bank, the town stretches for about a mile, spreading over three small hills that rise abruptly from the river-side. The buildings, covering an area of about 2 square miles, are divided into two main parts—the new town to the north and the old town to the south. Though, according to tradition, a place of extreme antiquity, the old town of Násik is without ruins or buildings of any age. In style and appearance, the houses do not differ from the new quarter, little of which is more than a hundred years old.

Pánchwati, the portion of the city on the left bank of the river, in extent about one-seventh part of the whole, has several large temples and substantial dwellings, owned and inhabited chiefly by Bráhmans. Between Pánchwati and the old town, the river banks are for about 400 yards lined with masonry walls and flights of stone steps. On both sides, places of worship fringe the banks, and even the bed of the stream is thickly dotted with temples and shrines. Though the town is not walled, the streets opening on the river and leading to the southern and western suburbs are ornamented with gateways. The streets are for the most part narrow and crooked, and the houses, built on plinths 2 or 3 feet high, have almost all an upper floor, and most of them more than one storey. The fronts of many are rich in well-carved woodwork, and the whole place has an air of wealth and comfort not to be seen in many Deccan towns.

Though, since the misfortunes of Ráma and Sítá, Násik has ranked among the most sacred places of Hindu pilgrimage, its early Hindu rulers do not seem to have raised the town to any position of wealth or importance. The Musalmáns made it the head-quarters of a Division, and are said to have protected the town by building a fort, and to have fostered its trade, introducing the manufacture of paper and other industries. On the rise of the Maráthá power, Násik, chosen by the Peshwás as one of their capitals, increased in size and wealth. At first, under British government, it passed through a time of depression. But of late years, the opening of railway communication and the establishment here of the head-quarters of the District, have added much to its wealth and prosperity.

On account of the great number of pilgrims who visit its shrines, the population of Násik varies much at different times of the year. The fixed population would seem to increase but slowly. The returns for

1850 gave a total of 21,860, of whom 6067 were Brahmans, 12,726 other Hindus, 3009 Musalmáns, 3 Pársís, and 55 Christians In 1872, the inhabitants numbered 22 539, and in 1881, 27,070, including 2969 dwelling in the cantonment of Deolali Of the total number, 21,579 were Hindus, 3754 Muhammadans, 227 Jains, 1291 Christians, 80 Pársis, and 139 'others' Females numbered 12 994, and males 14,076, the cantonment of Deolálí returning 1091 females and 1878 males

The industries of Nasik maintain something of their former importance, although, owing to the competition of machinery the manufacture of paper has greatly declined Neither wool nor silk is woven in Násik, but cotton hand loom weaving is still carried on with success, and in brass and copper work Násik ranks first among the towns of the Bombay Presidency The cotton weavers can only earn about 6d a day for 20 days in the month, women assist and earn about 1½d a day The old and new palaces of the Peshwa accommodate the Collector's court and the municipal and other public offices There are also a subordinate judge's court a high and 8 vernacular schools, and post and telegraph offices Besides being the head quarters station of the District, the town is also the seat of the chief revenue and police officers There are two travellers bungalows The municipality was established in 1864, and raised to a city municipality in 1874 Income (1882–83) £4254 incidence of municipal taxation, 3s 1½d per head within municipal limits The income is chiefly drawn from octroi, a house tax, a sanitary cess, and tolls. In hills near Násik are two sets of rock cut temples—a small series about 2 miles to the east, and a larger series about 5 miles to the west of the town The climate is healthy and pleasant

Nasírábád (or *Maimansingh*) — Head quarters Sub division of Maimansingh District, Bengal —*See* MAIMANSINGH SUB DIVISION

Nasírábád (or *Maimansingh*) — Civil station and administrative head quarters of Maimansingh District, Bengal, situated on the west bank of the Brahmaputra river (crossed here by a ferry), in lat. 24° 45 50" N, and long 90° 26 54" E. Population (1881) 10,561, namely, males 7623, and females 2938 Muhammadans numbered 5307, Hindus 5180, and 'others,' 74. Area of town site, 960 acres Municipal income (1871), £473, (1883–84), £1056, of which £756 was derived from taxation, average incidence of taxation, 1s 5⅛d per head of the town population Nasírabád is of no great commercial importance, as the Brahmaputra is only navigable by large boats during the rains, nor is it noted for any historical event The only antiquities of any interest are two Hindu temples The town contains good English and vernacular schools, and a charitable dispensary, small municipal police force

Nasírábád.—Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 318 square miles, containing 2 towns and 86 villages. Population (1872) 60,109; (1881) 69,526, namely, 35,427 males and 34,099 females. Hindus number 60,622; Muhammadans, 6725; and 'others,' 2179. Land revenue (1882), £22,845.

The Tápti, the Vághar, and the Girna bound the Sub-division on the north, east, and west, and are perennial streams. The country is a rich black plain, most of which is highly cultivated. Climate healthy; average rainfall, 30·7 inches. In 1859–60 the survey settlement was introduced, and disclosed 6809 holdings, with an average extent of 17½ acres, paying an average assessment of £2, 16s. 3d.; incidence of land-tax, 7s. 8½d. per head. Of the total area of 318 square miles, 158,089 acres were returned as cultivable at the time of the revenue survey; 32,139 acres uncultivable; 3002 acres under grass; and 10,403 acres of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. Of the 158,089 acres of cultivable land, 12,761 acres were alienated lands. Of the remaining 145,328 acres, the area taken up for cultivation in 1878–79 was 119,031 acres. Grain crops occupied 72,588 acres, of which 36,427 acres were under *joár*, and 21,390 under *bájra;* pulses occupied 2902 acres; oil-seeds, 6677 acres, of which 4043 were under linseed; fibres, 30,619 acres, of which 30,592 were under cotton; and miscellaneous crops, 6145 acres.

Nasírábád.—Town in the Nasírábád Sub-division of Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency; situated 2 miles south of Bhádli station, on the North-Eastern Line of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway, and 8 miles south-west of Bhusáwal. Lat. 20° 58′ 30″ N., long. 75° 41′ 30″ E. Population (1881) 10,243, namely, 5129 males and 5114 females. Hindus numbered 7693; Muhammadans, 2295; Jains, 200; and 'others,' 55. The town is noted for the manufacture of glass bangles by Musalmáns. There are several old mosques in the neighbourhood. JALGAON, the head-quarters of the Sub-division, lies about 6 miles to the west. Nasírábád was several times harried by the Bhíls of the Sátmála range before the occupation of the country by the British. In 1801 it was plundered by a freebooter named Juba, and again, just before the great famine of 1803, by one of the Peshwá's deputies. After this the village wall was built by one of the Purandhari family, to whom the town was given in grant.

Nasírábád.—Cantonment in Ajmere-Merwárá, Rájputána; situated in lat. 26° 18′ 45″ N., and long. 74° 47′ E., on a bleak, open plain, sloping eastward from the Arávalli Hills. Population (1881) of cantonment, 2838; of town, 18,482: total, 21,320, namely, 11,462 males and 9858 females. Hindus numbered 14,843; Muhammadans, 5033; Christians, 1029; Jains, 281; Pársís, 44; Jews, 73; and Sikhs, 17. Area of town and cantonment, 8·5 square miles. The station,

which was laid out in 1818 by Sir David Ochterlony, stretches over a mile in length, and has upon its outskirts a native town, irregularly built. Lines exist for a battery of Royal Artillery, a regiment of European infantry, a regiment of Native infantry, and a squadron of Native cavalry. Nasírabad is garrisoned by troops of the Bombay army. Drainage good; water brackish and insufficient in quantity. The troops at Nasírábad mutinied on 28th May 1857, but they met with no encouragement from the people, and marched away to Delhi without attempting to attack Ajmere. A station on the Málwá line of the Rájputána-Málwá State Railway. Post office.

Nasírabad.—*Táluk* in Mehar Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 27° 17′ and 27° 33′ N. lat., and 67° 34′ and 68° 6′ E. long. Area, 343 square miles. Population (1872) 33,597; (1881) 46,278, namely, 25,163 males and 21,115 females, dwelling in 1 town and 54 villages, containing 6400 houses. Hindus number 1792; Muhammadans, 40,844; and Sikhs, 3642. Gross revenue (1882), £12,519. Area assessed to land revenue, 58,629 acres; under actual cultivation, 49,635 acres. The *táluk* in 1883 contained 2 criminal courts; police circles (*thánas*), 4; regular police, 23 men.

Nasírabad.—Town in Nasírabád *táluk*, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 27° 23′ N., and long. 67° 57′ 30″ E., on the Chilo Canal, 10 miles east of Warah (the chief place in the *táluk*), 7 from the nearest railway station, [illegible] Sind, Punjab, and Delhi line, and 14 north-east of Mehar. [illegible] *tappadár*, contains a staging bungalow, post-office, and police lines. Population under 2000. Local and transit trade in rice.

Nasírabád.—Town in Salon *tahsíl*, [illegible] District, Oudh, situated 14 miles north-east of Salon, and [illegible] town, in lat. 26° 15′ N., and long. [illegible] Population (1881) [illegible], namely, Muhammadans 1815, and [illegible] Government vernacular school.

Nasriganj.—Town, [illegible] Sháhábád District, Bengal, [illegible] 84° 22′ 25″ E., on the [illegible] river Son. Population (1881) [illegible] madans 1807. [illegible] of taxation, [illegible] per head of [illegible] of the [illegible] trade in [illegible] paper.

Naswadi.—[illegible] Bombay Presidency. [illegible]

Gáekwár of Baroda. The chief is styled Thákur. The Aswan river divides the estate into two nearly equal parts, an open plain on the north, but somewhat hilly and thickly wooded in the south.

Nátágarh.—Village in the District of the Twenty-four Parganás, Bengal. Manufactures of brass and iron work. Aided vernacular school.

Náte-puta.—Town in Sholápur District, Bombay Presidency; situated in lat. 17° 53′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 47′ 36″ E., 42 miles north-west of Pandharpur, 66 miles east by north of Satára, and 78 miles west by north of Sholápur town. Náte-puta is situated on the Poona-Sholápur road, and is said to have been founded or raised from a village to a market-place by Malik Sundar, a Báhmani minister (1342–1490). The weekly market is held on Wednesday, at which about £19,500 worth of goods are estimated to change hands annually. About 100 looms prepare blankets valued at £500 a year. Population (1881) 2261. Dispensary.

Náthdwára.—Town in the State of Udaipur (Oodeypore) or Meywár, Rájputána; situated 22 miles north-north-east of Udaipur city, on the right bank of the Banás. Population (1881) 8458, namely, Hindus 7906, and Muhammadans 552. Náthdwára is one of the most famous Vishnuite shrines in India, possessing the original image of Krishna which was worshipped at Muttra (Mathurá). When Aurangzeb endeavoured to root out the worship of Krishna at Mathurá, the Ráná Ráj Singh of Udaipur, about 1671, obtained permission to bring the renowned idol to Meywár; and it was escorted with vast pomp by the route of Kotah and Rámpura, until at length, after entering the territory of Udaipur, the chariot-wheels of the god stuck fast in a place called Siarh, in the fief of Dilwára. The Ráo of Dilwára, one of the sixteen great nobles of Meywár, declared that by this omen Krishna had intimated his wish that this should be his residence, and immediately conferred on Náthjí (the idol) all the lands of the village; and the pious gift was subsequently confirmed by his overlord the Ráná. Náthjí was removed from his chariot; in due time a temple was erected for his reception, and a great town of many thousands of inhabitants grew up around it, and was called Náthdwára, 'the portal of the Lord Krishna.' From the ridge of hills on the east, where large herds of cattle graze, to the banks of the Banás on the west, these precincts of the god have always been a sanctuary, within which no blood can be shed, no arrest made, and the criminal is free from pursuit. Rich offerings are sent here from every corner of India, and crowds of pilgrims flock to the sacred shrine. The guardians of the shrine belong to the Valabhacharya sect; and the image is one of the seven famous images possessed by this division of the votaries of Krishna. [For further account, see Tod's *Annals of Rájásthán*, vol. i. pp. 449–459, 2nd edition; Madras, 1873.] Náth-

dwára is to be the terminus of a branch line of the Rájputána Malwa Railway

Nat maw.—Village in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma, situated in lat 17° 34 10 N, and long 95° 30 30 E, on the bank of the Nat maw stream Population (1881) 800, number of houses, 147

Nattor—Sub-division of Rájshahi District Bengal, lying between 24° 9′ 30″ and 24° 48 N lat, and between 88° 53 15 and 89° 23 30″ E. long Area, 814 square miles villages 1580, houses, 83,933. Population (1881) 470,512, namely, males 228 625, and females 241,887, persons per square mile, 578 villages per square mile, 1 94, persons per village, 297, houses per square mile 107, persons per house, 5 6 Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Muhammadans 359 523 Hindus, 110 983, and Christians, 6 This Sub-division includes the 4 police circles (*thanas*) of Nattor, Barágáon, Singra, and Lalpur In 1883 it contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts a regular police force of 100 men, and a village watch of 1124 *chaukidárs*

Nattor—The ancient capital of Rájshahi District and at present the head quarters of Nattor Sub-division, Bengal, situated on the north bank of the Narad river, in lat 24° 25 15 N, and long 89° 2 21 E. Its central situation led to its being made the early seat of administration, but owing to its unhealthiness (the town being built on low marsh land reclaimed from the river) the head quarters have been transferred to RAMPUR BEAULEAH, 30 miles distant Population (1881) 9094, namely, Muhammadans, 5368 Hindus, 3721, and 'others, 5 Municipal income (1883–84), £799, of which £740 was derived from taxation, average incidence of taxation, 1s 7½d per head of the town population Nattor is a compact town clinging close around the Rájbarí or palace of the Nattor Rajas, who rose into power in the earlier half of the last century and gradually obtained possession of almost the entire District Their estate now holds only the third or fourth rank in Rájsháhí

Naubatpur—Village in Benares District, North West Provinces, situated in lat 25° 14 48 N, and long 83° 27′ 40 E, on the banks of the Karamnasa river, here crossed by a fine stone bridge Population (1881) 948, principally Musalmáns, Bráhmans, and Bhuinhars *Bazár*, staging bungalow, and masonry *sarái*

Naugáon—A British cantonment in Bundelkhand, Central India. *See* NOWGONG

Naul Tirth.—Gorge in Belgaum District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* GOKAK.

Naupáda.—Town in Ganjám District, Madras Presidency Lat 18° ...″ N, long 84° 20′ 50′ E. Population (1881) 1835, number of

houses, 389. The place is notable for its salt manufacture, the annual value of which is about £100,000.

Naushahra (*Nowshera*; also called *Khalsá Khattak tahsíl*).—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Pesháwar District, Punjab, consisting of a small tract north of the Kábul river, and of a larger tract stretching southwards from the Kábul river to the Indus, on the Kohát border. Area, 548 square miles, with 121 towns and villages, 13,939 houses, and 17,510 families. Population (1881) 90,584, namely, males 52,373, and females 38,211; average density of population, 165 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Muhammadans, 81,961; Hindus, 7005; Sikhs, 568; and Christians, 1050. The total average area of cultivated land for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82, is returned at 111 square miles, or 70,853 acres, the principal crops being the following:—Wheat, 30,353 acres; barley, 22,382 acres; *joár*, 3684 acres; and cotton, 963 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £6875. The administrative staff consists of a *tahsíldár*, who presides over 1 civil and 1 criminal court. The *tahsíl* is divided into 4 police circles (*thánás*), with a regular police force of 57 men, and a rural police or village watch of 156 *chaukídárs*.

Naushahra (*Nowshera*).—Town, cantonment, and civil station in Pesháwar District, Punjab, and head-quarters of the Naushahra or Khalsá Khattak *tahsíl;* situated in lat. 33° 59′ 50″ N., long. 72° 1′ 45″ E., on the right bank of the Kábul river, 27 miles east of Pesháwar city, 19 miles west of Attock, and 15 miles south of Hoti Mardan. The cantonment lies in a small sandy plain, 3 miles in width; surrounded on the east, south, and west by hills, but open on the north toward the Kábul river. There are lines for a British regiment, a regiment of Native cavalry, and another of Native infantry. *Bázár*, police station, *sarái*, post-office and telegraph offices; Protestant and Roman Catholic churches. There are two towns of Naushahra, the native town being on the left bank of the river, about 2 miles above the cantonment, and connected with it by a bridge of boats, which is maintained all the year round. A first-class staging bungalow is situated close to the bridge of boats, and in the cantonment is a station of the Punjab Northern State Railway. The drainage is effectively performed by means of natural ravines, and a good and wholesome water-supply is obtained from the river, as well as from wells. Population of Naushahra cantonment (1881) 5473, namely, males 4345, and females 1128. The native town of Naushahra, on the opposite bank of the river, contains (1881) a separate population of 8090, namely, males 3879, and females 3611. Including the cantonment and native town, Naushahra contains a total population of 12,963, composed as follows:—Muhammadans, 9032; Hindus, 2820; Sikhs, 93; and 'others' (almost exclusively European troops), 1018. The native town

of Naushahra is picturesquely situated, and is a prosperous agricultural centre, with extensive lands irrigated from wells, and a good Government school

Naushahra (*Nowshera*).—Town in Hazára District, Punjab.—*See* NAWASHAHR.

Naushahro.—Sub-division of Haidarabád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, situated between lat 26° 1′ 30′ and 27° 15′ N., and between long 67° 51′ and 68° 54′ E. Population (1872) 219,596, (1881) 197,149 persons. Area, 2939 square miles. Bounded on the north and west by the Indus, on the east and north-east by Khairpur State and Thar and Párkar District, and on the south by Hála Sub-division.

Physical Aspects.—Naushahro consists of a wide alluvial plain, stretching from north to south, broken only by the forest lands bordering the Indus. The irrigation system comprises 98 canals, of which 22 are main feeders. The chief are—the Mahrab, 36 miles long, the Dádwah, 32¾ miles long, which taps the Indus at Mithani, and tails off at Yáru Dahri, the Nasrat, 30 miles long, tapping the Indus in Mohbat Dero forest, the Alí bahár Kacheri, 30 miles long, tapping the Indus at Nakúr, and the Bágwáh, 27½ miles long. The Nasrat was dug during the rule of Nur Muhammad Kalhora, and opened out from a *dhandh* near Gulshah, a fact which tends to show that the Indus formerly extended farther eastward, the old bed being still traceable at places. Game and fish are abundant. The forests of this Sub-division, some of which are very extensive, are 13 in number, and cover a total area of 75,269 acres, yielding in 1873-74 a revenue of £6147, in 1878 of £10,595, and in 1880 of £4818. The decrease in the last year was due to the abolition of the Indus flotilla, which had been a large consumer of fuel.

History.—The early history of Naushahro cannot be separated from that of the Province itself. On the division of Sind among the Talpur chiefs after the decisive battle of Sháhpur in 1786, when Abdul Nabi Kalhora was defeated by Mirs Fateh Alí and Rustam Khán, the *parganás* of Kandiaro and Naushahro fell to the share of Mír Sohrab Khán Talpur, and formed a portion of Khairpur State. This chief died in 1830, and dissensions then broke out between his sons Mír Rustam and Mír Alí Murad, which in 1842 resulted in a battle, when the latter was victorious. In 1843, Alí Murád obtained the dignity of *Raís*, or lord-paramount, and Naushahro and Kandiáro remained in his possession till 1852, when, in consequence of misconduct, they were confiscated and incorporated with the Haidarabad Collectorate. These *parganás*, with the *táluks* of Moro and Sakrand, constitute the modern Sub-division of Naushahro.

Population.—The population in 1856 was estimated at 187,336

The Census of 1872 returned it at 219,596, of whom 185,521 were Musalmáns and 34,075 Hindus. That of 1881 returned it at 197,149, namely, 103,397 males and 93,752 females, dwelling in 35,501 houses, scattered in 5 towns and 351 villages. The number of persons per square mile is 62. Muhammadans numbered 162,264; Hindus, 15,622; Sikhs, 18,666; aboriginal tribes, 580; and Christians, 17. The principal Muhammadan tribes represented are the Balúchis, Játs, Sindhs, and Sayyids. The prevailing language, both spoken and written, is Sindhi. Native traders use the Hindi-Sindhi character. The Hindus are confined to the towns, and form the trading community. The chief towns are KANDIARO, NAUSHAHRO, THARU SHAH, BHIRIA, and MORO. There are 7 fairs held in the Sub-division.

Agriculture.—The most common form of irrigation is by the *charkhi*, or Persian wheel. When the rainfall is abundant, a large extent of *baráni*, or rain land, is brought under tillage. The most fertile soil in Naushahro is found in the Kandiáro *táluk*. The cultivable land held in *jágír* covers an area of about 81,016 acres, of which 41,820 acres are in the Moro *táluk*, and 26,084 in a part of the Sakrand *táluk*. The survey was completed in 1863; and the settlement was introduced between the years 1864–65 and 1868–69, in some instances for nine, and in others for ten years. A revised settlement was introduced in the Sakrand *táluks* in 1878–79, and in the three remaining *táluks* in 1881–82, in every case for ten years. Area assessed to land revenue (1882–83), 219,142 acres. The total area of cultivable Government land in the Sub-division is 955,577 acres, but of these only 174,466 acres were actually under cultivation in 1882–83.

Manufactures.—The chief manufactures are cotton cloth, coarse paper, soap, oil, coloured clay rings for women's ornaments, saddles, and salt. The trade of Naushahro is principally in grain and other agricultural produce, and is almost entirely carried by the Indus and the canals connected with that river. The imports comprise wheat and rice, metals and metal goods, sugar, and European piece-goods. Estimated value of exports, £40,300; of imports, £44,000. Naushahro has also a considerable transit traffic in dried fruits, woollen and camel's hair cloths, carpets, silk, and embroidered goods, horses, and asses. The total length of roads in the Sub-division is about 822 miles, of which 92 are postal and trunk lines. The District post from Haidarábád to Kandiáro passes through the town of Naushahro, where there is a sub-post-office. There are 16 ferries, of which 14 are on the Indus.

Revenue.—The imperial revenue in 1881–82 was £48,202; the local, £3297: total, £51,499. The land revenue yielded £39,883; *ábkári* or excise, £1267; stamps, £2786; registration, £231; postal, £837; fines, £452; forests, £1963; licence-tax, £715; interest, £63; salt and miscellaneous, £5. The local one anna cess on land yielded

£2574, five per cent *jagir* cess £252, fisheries, £280, and ferries £191. The Sub-division of Naushahro, divided into the 4 *táluks* of Kandiaro, Naushahro, Moro, and Sakrand, is administered by an Assistant Collector and Sub divisional Magistrate with first-class powers. There is one civil court with its head quarters at Naushahro town, subordinate to the District Judge of Haidarábad. The police force numbers in all 143 men, being 1 constable to every 1325 of the population. There is a subordinate jail at Naushahro town. Number of police circles (*thánas*), 21. The total number of schools (1873-74) is 23, with 1122 pupils, of these, 19 are Government institutions. There is no school for girls. The Sub-division contains 5 municipalities, viz. Kandiaro, Naushahro, Tharu Shah, Bhiria, and Moro. Their aggregate receipts in 1881-82 were £657, and in 1883-84 £770, the incidence of municipal taxation varied from 9½d. to 1s. 5d.

Climate, etc.—The rainfall in 1882 amounted to 7.93 inches. The chief diseases are fevers, bowel complaints and pulmonary affections. The only medical institution is the dispensary at Tharu Shah.

Naushahro.—*Táluk* in Naushahro Sub-division, Haidarabad (Hyderábad) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, lying between 26° 36' and 27° 9' N. lat., and between 67° 54' and 68° 25' E. long. Area, 531 square miles. Population (1872) 77,711; (1881) 61,295, namely, 31,363 males and 29,932 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 103 villages, containing 11,201 houses. Hindus numbered 5312, Muhammadans, 48,936, Sikhs, 6767, aboriginal tribes, 279, and Christians, 1. Gross revenue (1881-82), £19,308. Area under actual cultivation, 59,891 acres. In 1882-83 the *táluk* contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts, 7 police circles or *thánás*, 35 regular police.

Naushahro.—Town in Naushahro *táluk* and Sub-division, Haidarabad District, Sind, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat. 26° 51' N., and long. 10° 8' E., close to the Pairozwáh Canal and on the main road from Haidarábád city to Rohri, 15 miles north-east of Moro. Good roads to Phul, Mithani, and Padídan. Residence of a *mukhtiyárkar* and a *tappadar*, and contains the usual public buildings, with jail, school, post-office, bungalows, etc. Population (1881) 3110, municipal revenue (1883-84), £184, incidence of municipal taxation, 11½d. Chief industry, weaving, trade in grain and cloth, which are annually exported to the value of £6000. Naushahro is said to have been founded about 170 years ago. During the Talpur dynasty it was an important artillery depot of the Mirs.

Naushahro Abro.—*Táluk* of the Sakkar and Shikarpur Sub-division, Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency. Area, 402 square miles. Population (1872) 48,226, (1881) 55,728, namely, 29,803 males and 25,925 females, dwelling in 1 town and 108 villages, containing 8960 houses. Hindus numbered 6389, Muhammadans, 45,010, Sikhs,

The landholding classes are principally Muhammadans, Káyasths, Kurmís, and Bráhmans. About 47 per cent of cultivated area is tilled by Kurmis, 8·6 per cent. by Brahmans, and 6·6 per cent by Chamárs. Tenants with rights of occupancy are more than three times as numerous as any other class of cultivators. Sugar boiling is the only important manufacture. The chief local marts for surplus produce are Nawabganj, Senthal, Baraur, and Hafizganj; the first and last being situated on the only road in the *tahsil*, the metalled line from Bareli to Pilibhit, and also on or near the newly opened Pilibhít branch of the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway. In 1883, Nawábganj *tahsil* contained 1 criminal court, with 2 police circles (*thanás*), a regular police force numbering 29 men, and a village watch or rural police of 229 *chaukídárs*.

Nawábganj.—Town in Bareli (Bareilly) District, North-Western Provinces, and head-quarters of Nawabganj *tahsil*; situated on the metalled road between Bareli and Pilibhit, 19 miles north-east of the former town. Nawabganj was founded between 1775 and 1797 by Asaf-ud-daulá, Nawab of Oudh. Population (1881) 4343. Besides the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices, Nawabganj contains a first-class police station, imperial post office, and Anglo-vernacular school.

Nawábganj.—*Pargana* in Bara Banki District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Rámnagar and Fatehpur, on the east by Daryábad, on the south by Partábganj, and on the west by Dewa *pargana*. Area, 79 square miles, or 50,560 acres, of which 32,266 acres are cultivated, 11,276 cultivable, and 5592 barren. The river Kalyani skirts the *pargana* on the north, and flows for about 8 miles within its limits, having about 12 villages on its banks. Population (1881) 45,798, namely, Hindus, 34,142; Muhammadans, 11,633; and 'others,' 3. Of the 76 villages comprising the *pargana*, 44 are held under *tálukdári* and 32 under *mufrid* tenure. The principal landholder is Tassadak Rasul Khán of Jahangirábád, who owns 25 out of the 44 *talukdári* villages. Government land revenue, £8729. Principal manufactures, sugar and cotton cloth. Communication is afforded by the Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, the imperial road from Lucknow to Faizábad (Fyzábad), and a road to Bahramghát.

Nawábganj.—Chief town of Bara Banki District, Oudh, adjoining the civil station of Bara Banki, situated 17 miles east of Lucknow, on the road from that city to Faizábád (Fyzábád). Lat. 26° 55' 55" N., long. 81° 14' 35" E. The civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District is situated on high ground a mile west of the town, separated from it by a small stream, the Jamuriha. The ground in the immediate neighbourhood is barren, and much cut up by ravines. The Deputy Commissioner's court, the offices of the Assistant Engineer and the Assistant Opium Officer, the jail, police lines, and a few

bungalows for the European residents, constitute the civil station. The Government dispensary, school, and police station are situated in the native town. Nawábganj contained a population in 1869 of 10,606; and in 1881 of 13,933, namely, males 7412, and females 6521. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 8640; Muhammadans, 4933; Jains, 344; and Christians, 16. Municipal income (1883-84), £1284, of which £1112 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 5⅝d. per head of the town population. The main street of the town is broad, with well-built houses on either side. Large trade in sugar and cotton. The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway has a station at Bara Banki. During the Mutiny of 1857, Nawábganj was the scene of a signal defeat of the insurgent army by a British force under Sir Hope Grant.

Nawábganj.—*Parganá* in Tarabganj *tahsíl*, Gonda District, Oudh; bounded on the north by Mahádeva and Mánikpur, on the east by Basti District in the North-Western Provinces, on the south by the Gogra river separating it from Faizábád (Fyzábád), and on the west by *parganás* Digsár and Mahádeva. Area, 142 square miles, of which 64 are under cultivation. Population (1869) 61,417; (1881) 68,511, namely, males 36,342, and females 32,169. The prevailing tenure is *tálukdárí;* the principal *tálukdárs* being Mahárání Subháo Kunwár, the widow of the late Mahárájá Sir Mán Singh, K.C.S.I.; Rájá Krishan Datt Rám of Sinha Chánda; and Mahant Har Charan Dás of Basantpur. Government land revenue, £6653.

Nawábganj.—Town in Gonda District, Oudh; situated a few miles north of the Gogra river, in lat. 26° 55′ 45″ N., and long. 82° 11′ 36″ E. Founded in the last century by Nawáb Shujá-ud-daulá as a *bázár* for the supply of provisions to his troops and attendants when on his hunting expeditions, and the largest grain mart in the District. Population (1869) 6131; (1881) 8373, residing in 18 brick and 1604 mud-built houses. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 6647; Muhammadans, 1718; and Christians, 8. Municipal income in 1883-84, £711, of which £215 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 6⅛d. per head. The town contains 23 Hindu temples and 3 Muhammadan mosques, a small *sarái* or travellers' rest-house, and 3 schools. It consists of a long street, with shops and dwelling-houses on each side, in front of which are piled heaps of grain to attract the attention of dealers. To the north, the street broadens on to a good-sized plain, which is bordered here and there by substantial sheds for the storage of merchandise, and serves as a standing place for the carts which bring down the produce of the *tarái.* The principal exports are rice, oil-seeds, wheat, Indian corn, and hides. The imports are quite insignificant, being confined to salt, English cloth, and pottery, from Mírzápur or

Bhagwantnagar. The trade on leaving Nawabganj takes two main directions—one by the Gogra to Patna and Lower Bengal, the other through Faizábád to Cawnpur and the cotton country. The main export by the latter is rice, while Bengal absorbs the greatest part of the oil seeds, Indian corn, and hides.

Nawabganj.—Town in Unao District, Oudh, situated 12 miles north-east of Unao town on the Lucknow road. Population (1881) 2606, namely, Hindus 2206, and Muhammadans 400. Formerly the head-quarters of a *tahsíl* and police circle, but these having been removed, the place has decayed. A large fair is held every year at the end of the month of Chaitra in honour of the goddesses Durga and Kusahri, which attracts a large gathering from Lucknow and Cawnpur, besides the people of the neighbourhood.

Nawabganj (now called the *North Barrackpur Municipality*).—Town and municipality in the Barrackpur Sub-division of the District of the Twenty-four Parganas, Bengal. Lat. 22° 45′ 40″ N., long. 88° 23′ 52″ E. Population (1872) 16,525; (1881) 17,702, namely, males 9550, and females 8152. Classified according to religion, the population in 1881 consisted of—Hindus, 14,050; Muhammadans, 3623; and 'others,' 29. Municipal income (1883-84) £966, of which £926 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 0½d. per head. Municipal police, 52 men. Adjacent to Nawabganj is the small village of PALTA, from whence the water-supply of Calcutta is derived.

Nawábganj.—Village in Purniah District, Bengal; situated in lat. 25° 29′ N., and long. 87° 17′ E.; 34 miles from Purniah town, and 12 from the banks of the Ganges, opposite Sahibganj. It is considered to include the village of Bakhmára, which lies a mile distant; the whole was let from 1873 to 1878 as an indigo farm. Population not returned in the Census, but estimated at 1500. Primary school. The town is said to have been founded in order to protect the route from Purniah to Rájmahal (the seat of Government in the later Musalman times), which was infested by gangs of robbers. Nawabganj contains an old fort in ruins, covering an area of about 80 acres. Exports of rice, jute, tobacco, indigo, and oil seeds; imports of piece-goods, spices, brass and iron ware, etc.

Nawada.—Sub-division of Gaya District, Bengal, lying between 24° 30′ 30″ and 25° 7′ N. lat., and between 85° 15′ 3[illegible]″ and 86° 0′ E. long. Area, 1020 square miles; villages, 1817; houses, 77,786. Population (1872) 444,996; (1881) 488,488, namely, males 242,326, and females 246,162, showing an increase of 43,492, or 9.77 per cent. in nine years. The Hindus in 1881 numbered 439,115; Muhammadans, 49,369; and Christians, [illegible]. Average density of population, 479 persons per square mile; inhabitants per village, 268; houses per square mile, [illegible]; inmates per house, 6.[illegible]. This Sub-division

comprises the 3 police circles (*thánás*) of Nawáda, Rájaulí, and Pakríbaránwán. In 1884 it contained 2 courts, a regular force of 94 men, and a village watch numbering 385 *chaukidárs*.

Nawáda.—Town in Gayá District, Bengal, head-quarters of the Nawáda Sub-division, and a station on the chord line of the East India Railway; situated in lat. 24° 52′ 42″ N., and long. 85° 35′ 1″ E., on a branch of the river Dhanarji. Population, 4812. Municipal income (1883–84), £107. Has a large and increasing through traffic. Municipal police force, 21 men. The name of this town is thought to be a corruption of Nauábádah. Before its acquisition by the Company, Nawáda was ruled by the semi-independent Rájás of Hasúá.

Nawádá.—Village in Midnapur District, Bengal. Lat. 22° 35′ 30″ N., long. 87° 30′ E. Population between 2000 and 3000, but not returned separately in the Census Report. Noted for the manufacture of a superior quality of cane sugar; trade in agricultural produce.

Nawagáon.—Hill range in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; rising 200 feet above the plain, with eight distinct peaks, known as the 'Seven Sisters and their Little Brother.' Though scantily clothed with vegetation, these hills are infested with wild animals.

Nawagáon.—Artificial lake in Bhandárá District, Central Provinces; situated in lat. 20° 55′ N., and long. 80° 11′ E.; 17 miles in circumference, and with an average depth of 40 feet; surrounded by the NAWAGAON HILLS. Numerous streams supply the lake, which is closed by two embankments, respectively 330 and 540 yards in length. Chimná Pátel, the ancestor of the proprietor of Nawagáon village, constructed the work, which now affords means of irrigation for 500 acres of rice and sugar-cane land, and yields the proprietor an annual income of £70 from this source.

Nawagáon.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* NAIGAON RIBAHI.

Nawágarh.—Fort in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab; on a ridge stretching south-east from the great range of Moral-ka-kanda. Lat. 31° 15′ N., long. 77° 40′ E. Fortified with stockades, and held by the Gúrkhas (1000 strong), during the war of 1814–15; but the people of Bashahr rose against their foreign masters, invested the fort, and compelled the garrison to surrender.

Nawalgarh.—Town in the Shaikhawáti District of Jaipur State, Rájputána. Distant 75 miles north-west from Jaipur city. Population (1881) 10,032, namely, 5166 males and 4866 females. Hindus number 8780, and Muhammadans 1252. The chief is a tributary of Jaipur, and has a yearly revenue of £7500. Post-office.

Nawalgúnd.—Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency. Area, 562 square miles, containing 2 towns and 87 villages. Population (1872) 104,700; (1881) 87,832, or 43,158 males and 44,674

females, occupying 16,934 houses. Hindus numbered 78,909, Muhammadans, 8145, and 'others,' 778. Yearly land revenue, £38,286. Nawalgúnd is one of the northern Sub-divisions of Dhárwár District. It is an expanse of black soil, with three hills running from north-west to south-west. The water supply is chiefly from rivers, the rainfall is uncertain. Of the 562 square miles, 20 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages. The rest contains 334,212 acres, or 96·1 per cent, of cultivable land, 1980 acres of uncultivable land, 106 acres of grass, 294 acres of forest, and 11,245 acres of village sites, roads, rivers, and streams. In the 334,212 acres of cultivable land, are 94,025 acres of alienated lands in Government villages. In 1881-82, of 240,208 acres, the whole area held for tillage, 1420 acres were fallow or under grass. Of the 238,788 acres actually under tillage grain crops occupied 141,129 acres (82,906 being under wheat), pulses, 11,083 acres, oil seeds, 18,525 acres, fibres, 67,866 acres, and miscellaneous crops, 185 acres. Nawalgund Sub-division contained in 1883 three criminal courts; police circles (*thanás*) 2, regular police, 47 men, village watch (*chaukidárs*), 393.

Nawalgúnd.—Chief town of the Nawalgund Sub-division of Dhárwár District, Bombay Presidency, situated 24 miles north-east of Dharwar town, in lat. 15° 33′ 10″ N. and long. 75° 23′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 7810, namely, Hindus 6467, Muhammadans 1232, and Jains 111. Municipal income (1882-83), £426, incidence of municipal taxation, 1s. 1d. per head of population. Post-office. The town is celebrated for the excellence of its cotton carpets, and for its superior breed of cattle, which are chiefly sold at the weekly market on Tuesdays. Nawalgund, with much of the surrounding country formerly belonged to a local chief called the Desai of Nawalgund. It was conquered by Tipú Sultán, and taken from him by the Maráthás, who gave the Desái's family a maintenance in land yielding £2300 per annum. Three Government and two private schools.

Nawalpur.—Petty Bhil State in the Mehwas tract of Khandesh, Bombay Presidency. Population (1881) 180, supposed gross revenue (1880), £77. Principal produce, timber. The chief is a Bhil. The family has no patent allowing adoption, succession follows the rule of primogeniture.

Nawánagar.—Native State of the first class on the southern shore of the Gulf of Cutch (Kachchh) in the Hallar division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency. Bounded on the north by the Gulf and Rann of Cutch; on the west by the Okha Rann and the Arabian Sea; on the east by the Native States of Morvi, Rájkot, Dhrol, and Gondal, and on the south by the Sorath division of Káthiáwár. Area, 1379 square miles. Population (1872) [illegible]; (1881) [illegible]. The area shown is that returned by the Káthiáwár Political [illegible] of 1881.

gives the area at 3393 square miles. The latter authority returns the males at 163,462, and the females at 152,685, dwelling in 5 towns and 626 villages, containing 56,699 houses. Hindus number 250,382; Muhammadans, 49,221; 'others,' 16,544.

The territory lies between 21° 44′ and 22° 54′ N. lat., and between 68° 58′ and 71° E. long. It is generally flat, but about two-thirds of the Barda Hills are contained within its limits. Mount Venu, the highest point of the Barda Hills, is 2057 feet above the sea. Irrigation is conducted by means of water drawn from wells by bullocks, and in some places by aqueducts from rivers. A reservoir for the drinking supply of the capital, and for purposes of irrigation, is being built 8 miles south of Nawánagar town. The area will be about 600 acres. Especially on the coast of the Gulf of Cutch, along which the territory extends, the climate is good.

Marble of different qualities is found in the Kandorna and Bhanwar *táluks*. Copper occurs in the Kambhália *parganá*, but does not pay working expenses. Hopes are entertained that silver may be found in the island of Ajád. There are stone quarries within the limits of the State, and iron-ore is also found, but the production does not pay. The principal products are grain and cotton; cloth and silk are the chief manufactures. The land is mostly garden and dry crop. *Joár*, *bájra*, wheat, and gram are the staple crops. The wheat is produced without irrigation. At Ráwal about 1200 acres are irrigated for rice. Cotton, sugar-cane, and tobacco are raised in small quantities. A small pearl fishery lies off the coast on the southern shore of the Gulf. A trade in isinglass and shagreen is growing up; and the fisheries afford sole, pomfret, and whitebait. Mangrove swamps line the shores of the Gulf, affording large supplies of firewood, and pasture to herds of camels. The *Aloe littorale* is here said to grow wild, and the stalks of the blossoms when cooked to resemble asparagus in taste. A considerable number of people are employed as dyers. The dyes given to the local fabrics are much admired, and their excellence is traditionally attributed to the quality of the water of the Rangmati, which washes the walls of the town of Nawánagar. The harbours of Jodia and Nawánagar or Bedi are situated within the State; and there is land communication by carts and pack-bullocks, horses, and camels. Until 1860, the Nawánagar State was infested by lions, which particularly abounded in the Barda and Alech Hills. In 1860, however, when cannon were frequently fired in pursuit of the rebel Vághers, the lions fled from the hills, and are now only found in the Gir forest, and (rarely) in the Girnár mountain near Junágarh. Leopards, cheetahs, and *nilgái* are common.

The present (1881-82) chief, or Jám, of Nawánagar, Srí Vibhájí, K.C.S.I., is a Hindu of the Járeja Rájput caste. He administers the

State in person The Jarejas entered Káthiawár from Cutch and dispossessed the ancient family of Jetwas (Porbandar) then established at Ghumli Nawanagar was founded by Jam Ráwal in 1540 The Muhammadans called it Islamnagar but the Jams have restored the original name The Jáms are of the same family as the Ráos of Cutch The chief of Dhrol State claims to be descended from a brother of Jám Ráwal founder of the Nawánagar line and Rájkot is also an offshoot from this State The Jam in 1807 executed the usual engagements to pay tribute regularly to keep order in his territory and not to encroach on his neighbours The Járeja tribe was at the beginning of this century, notorious for the systematic murder of female children, to avoid the difficulty and expense of providing them with husbands Engagements were entered into by the Jareja chiefs in 1812 to abandon this custom and under the constant watchfulness of the British officers, it is believed to be now extinct

Nawanagar officially ranks as one of the first class tributary States of Kathiáwar, its chief, who is entitled to a salute of 11 guns having power to try for capital offences any person except British subjects The estimated gross revenue for the year ending 1880–81 was £231 851, and for the year 1881 82, £184 737 the decrease being attributed to the fall in the prices of produce as the State revenue is all levied in kind The chief pays a tribute of £12 011 jointly to the British Government the Gáekwár of Baroda, and the Nawab of Junágarh He maintains a military force of 2303 men He holds a title authorizing adoption and the succession follows the rule of primogeniture There are at present (1881) 62 schools in the State with 5095 pupils No transit dues are levied in the State There are 23 criminal and 9 civil courts in the State. The State expenditure on useful public works was £12,634 in 1882–83

Nawánagar—Chief town of Nawánagar State Kathiáwár Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 22° 26 30″ N and long 70 16 30 E 310 miles north west of Bombay and 5 miles east of the port of Bedi Population (1881) 39 668, namely 20 057 males and 19 611 females Hindus number 24 009, Muhammadans, 12,280 Jains 3306 Christians, 32, Pársís, 32, and 'others,' 9 Founded by Jám Ráwal in 1540. The town is almost entirely built of stone, and is surrounded by a fort built in 1788 Nawanagar is a flourishing place, nearly 4 miles in circuit, with a large trade In the sea, north of the town, are some beds of pearl oysters, but the pearls are of inferior quality, and the fishery appears to be mismanaged The out turn realizes about £400 annually The town is also known for silken and gold embroidery, for incense and perfumed oils, and for the *kanku* or red powder which is used to make the caste marks on the forehead of Hindus The average annual value of imports

Bedi for the three years ending 1879-80 was £166,772, and of the exports, £45,323.

Nawánagar.—Old town in Thána District, Bombay Presidency. Situated to the east of KALYAN railway station, a little beyond the new District bungalow.

Nawáshahr.—South-eastern *tahsíl* of Jálandhar (Jullundur) District, Punjab, lying between 30° 58′ 15″ and 31° 17′ 15″ N. lat., and between 75° 49′ 45″ and 76° 19′ E. long. Area, 294 square miles, with 1 town and 282 villages; number of houses, 12,287; number of families, 42,583. Total population (1881) 183,458, namely, males 99,546, and females 83,912. Average density of population, 624 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 98,900; Muhammadans, 60,149; Sikhs, 24,249; Jains, 158; and Christians, 2. Of the 283 towns and villages, 157 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 81 from five hundred to a thousand; 35 from one to two thousand; 9 from two to five thousand; and 1 upwards of ten thousand inhabitants. The average annual area under the principal crops for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned as follows:—Wheat, 61,305 acres; *joár*, 21,764 acres; Indian corn, 17,370 acres; gram, 6086 acres; *moth*, 6012 acres; barley, 5266 acres; sugar-cane, 8766 acres; and cotton, 3011 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £30,741. The administration is in the hands of a *tahsíldár* and 2 *munsifs*, who preside over 1 criminal and 3 civil courts; number of police circles (*thánás*), 2; strength of regular police force, 61 men; with a village watch or rural police of 316 *chaukídárs*.

Nawáshahr.—Town and municipality in Jálandhar District, Punjab, and head-quarters of Nawáshahr *tahsíl*. Lat. 31° 7′ 30″ N., long. 76° 9′ 30″ E. Founded by Nausher Khán, an Afghán, during the reign of the Emperor Bábar. Population (1881) 4960; namely, Hindus, 2891; Muhammadans, 1978; and Sikhs, 91. Number of houses, 328. Municipal income (1883-84), £184, or an average of 9d. per head. Nawáshahr is a thriving town, with paved streets and substantially built houses. It carries on a large trade in sugar, and a considerable manufacture in *lungís* and other cotton goods. The public buildings consist of the usual *tahsíli* courts and offices, post-office, middle school and girls' school, and *sarái* or native inn.

Nawáshahr.—Town and municipality in Abbottábád *tahsíl*, Hazára District, Punjab; situated in lat. 34° 10′ N., and long. 73° 18′ 45″ E., on the road to Thandiání, about 3½ miles east of Abbottábád town. Population (1881) 4307; namely, Muhammadans 3251, and Hindus 1056. Number of houses, 768. Municipal income (1883-84), £157, or an average of 8¾d. per head. Khattri local traders, allied with those of Balakot, carry on a brisk business in salt from the Jehlam mines, and in English piece-goods, which are exported to

Muzaffarábád and Kashmír, whence large quantities of *ghi* are imported

Nawibandar.—Port in Káthiawár, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 21° 26′ N, and long 69° 50′ E. 18 miles south east of Porbandar, and 15 north west of Mahadeopur on the south west coast, at the mouth of the river Bhadar, which during the monsoon is navigable by boats for about 18 miles. The port is available only for small craft, as the mouth of the river is shallow and rocky and difficult of access Population, 1343 in 1872, and 1069 in 1881 The trade of the town is diminishing owing to the effects of the railway on the import trade in timber, which had its centre here Imports in 1881—£4126, exports, £3920 Imports in 1882-83—£3258, exports £1740

Na win.—River in Prome District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma, formed by the junction of two streams, known as the North and South Na win The north Na win rises in the Pegu Yoma range to the north of the Pa dauk spur, and flows down a narrow rocky valley opening on the plains From its source to Sin won village its course is north west, thence it runs west and south west till it joins the South Na win, a mile south of Myo ma village The South Na win also rises in the Pegu Yomas immediately south of the Pa dauk spur, which forms the watershed between these two streams up to their union at its south west extremity As far as the mouth of the Tin gyi a stream draining a long and somewhat bell shaped valley and joining the South Na win near Yat thit, the river has a south westerly course, winding down a gorge and fed by mountain torrents Thence it debouches on the plains, and, after a short north west course turns south west to fall into the Irawadi (Irrawaddy), in lat 18° 49′ 30″ N and long 95° 18′ E., near the town of Prome The chief affluents of the Na win, after its junction with the South Na win, are the Kauk gwai, Law thaw, and Thit gyi In the hot season nearly all these streams are dry, but during the rains they bring down vast volumes of water, the drainage of an area of about 700 square miles finding its way out by means of the Na win These feeders are only navigable by small craft for a short time in the year The Na win is now mainly used as a channel for floating down the valuable timber from the forests on the Yoma range

Nayá Bagni.—One of the chief channels by which the Padmá or main stream of the Ganges now discharges its waters into the estuary of the Meghná. The Nayá Bagni is south of the Kirtinása, and within the jurisdiction of Bakarganj District.

Nayá Dumká (or *Dumka*) — Head-quarters Sub-division of the Santál Parganás District, Bengal, lying between 23° 48′ and 24° 50′ N lat, and between 86° 30′ 30″ and 87° 58′ E. long Area, 1426 square miles, number of villages, 2909, houses, 51,545 Population

(1881) 363,186, namely, males 182,390, and females 180,796. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 187,198; Muhammadans, 8603; Sikhs, 54; Christians, 1208; Buddhists, 132; non-Hindu aborigines, 165,991, of whom 155,854 were Santáls, 3346 Kols, and 6791 other tribes or unspecified. Average number of persons per square mile, 254·7; villages per square mile, 2·04; persons per village, 125; houses per square mile, 37·5; persons per house, 7. The Sub-division consists of the single police circle of Nayá-Dumká. In 1883–84 it contained 5 magisterial and revenue courts, a general police force of 26 men, and a village watch of 703 *chaukídárs*.

Nayá-Dumká (or *Dumká*).—Administrative head-quarters of the District of the Santál Parganás, and also of Nayá-Dumká Sub-division, Bengal. Lat. 24° 16′ N., long. 87° 17′ 30″ E. Dumká is one of the oldest British stations in Bengal. It is shown on the map of 1769 as 'Dumcaw,' and was then a post of *ghátwálí* police in the Bírbhúm jurisdiction. In 1795, Dumká was transferred to Bhágalpur, and was made the site of one of the four Kohistání police *thánás* for the regulation of the Rájmahál Hills. The name frequently occurs in the old correspondence as Dumkah or Doomka, till 1855, when it was first called Nayá-Dumká by the officer commanding a detachment of troops stationed here during the Santál rebellion. It is only occasionally called by the latter name now, and the present station is on the site of the old *ghátwálí* post. In 1855, Dumká was made the head-quarters of the Santál Parganás District, but was soon afterwards abandoned and left only as the head-quarters of the Dumká Sub-District. In 1873, the Sub-Districts of the Santál Parganás were changed into Sub-divisions, and Dumká again became the head-quarters of the whole District. It contains the office of the Deputy Commissioner of the Santál Parganás, who is also District judge; of the Sub-divisional officer, who is a subordinate judge; and of two other criminal and civil courts. Dumká itself is only a small *bázár* on the banks of the Mor river, carrying on a little trade in local produce, European piece-goods, etc., with a population in 1881 of some 2500 inhabitants.

Nayágáon.—State in Bundelkhand, North-Western Provinces.—*See* NAIGAON RIBAHI.

Nayágáon.—Town in Badausá *tahsíl*, Bánda District, North-Western Provinces, lying in lat. 25° 3′ 30″ N., and long. 79° 27′ 30″ E., on the route from Ajaigarh to Kálinjar, 9 miles north-east of the former and 6 south-west of the latter. Population (1881) 2021, chiefly Lodhís. The town is picturesquely situated in a fertile well-wooded valley, but the heat in summer is said to be almost insupportable. Village school.

Nayágarh.—Petty State in Orissa, Bengal, lying between 19° 54′

30″ and 20° 20′ 30″ N lat and between 84° 50′ 45″ and 85° 18′ E long Area, 588 square miles Population in 1881, 114 622 persons Bounded on the north by Khandpára State, on the east by Ranpur State, on the south by Puri District, and on the west by Daspalla State and the Madras District of Ganjam

Nayagarh State is a large and valuable territory, with some wide tracts of highly cultivated land Towards the south and south east the country is exceedingly wild, and incapable of tillage, but the jungles on the west might be profitably brought under cultivation The State abounds in noble scenery, and a splendid range of hills, varying from 2000 to 3000 feet in height, runs through its centre It sends rice, coarse grain, cotton, sugar-cane, and several kinds of oil seeds to the neighbouring Districts of Cuttack and Ganjam Area of the State, 588 square miles Total population (1881) 114 622, namely males 57,861, and females 56 761 Hindus number 113 312, Muhammadans, 361, and non Hindu aborigines 949 The most numerous aboriginal tribe is that of the Kandhs but the great majority of the aboriginal population are returned as Hindus in the religious classification of the Census Report The total number of villages is 729, only two of which contain more than 2000 inhabitants namely, Nijgarh, 2890, and Itamati 2123 Nayágarh State was founded about five hundred years ago by a scion of the family of the Rajput Rájá of Rewah It originally comprised Khandpará but about two hundred years ago this was erected into an independent territory The annual revenue is estimated at £3576, the tribute to the British Government is £552 The *Rájá's militia consists of 62 men, and the* police force of 495 There are 19 schools scattered throughout the State.

Nayákan hatti (or *Hatti*) —Village in Dodderi *taluk* Chitaldrug District, Mysore State Lat 14° 28′ 10″ N, long 76° 34′ 21″ E Population (1881) 1716 The residence of a line of *palegárs*, whose legendary history is associated with the breeding of cattle and sheep Their territory was absorbed by the neighbouring chief of Chitaldrúg, shortly before the rise of Haidar Alí. Nayakan hatti contains the tomb of Tippa Rudra, a celebrated *mahápurusha* or saint of the Lingáyats, who lived about 200 years ago His car festival is annually attended by 15,000 people

Nayánagar — Municipal town in Ajmere Merwara District, Rajputana —*See* BEAWAR

Nazirá —Village in Sibságar District, Assam Lat 26° 55′ N, long 94° 48′ E, on the left bank of the Dikhu river, about 9 miles south east of Sibságar town Important as containing the head-quarters of the Assam Tea Company The village contains several good houses, steam mill, store for European goods, and a large *bázár*

Neddiavattam.—Village and post station in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency. Lat. 11° 28′ N., and long. 76° 36′ E. Stands at the head of the Gúdalúr *ghát*, leading from Malabar and the Wynáad coffee districts to the Nílgiris, about 5800 feet above sea-level, and 22 miles from Utakamand (Ootacamund). Some important Government plantations are situated here.

Nedumangarh.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency. Area, 340 square miles. Nedumangarh contains 68 *karas* or villages. Population (1875) 47,668; (1881) 52,211, namely, 26,465 males and 25,746 females, occupying 11,636 houses. Hindus number 47,713; Muhammadans, 3627; and Christians, 871.

Neemuch.—Cantonment and town in Central India.—*See* NIMACH.

Negapatam.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency. Area, 239 square miles. Population (1881) 216,867, namely, 101,468 males and 115,399 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 322 villages, and occupying 40,085 houses. Hindus numbered 186,185; Muhammadans, 20,760; Christians, 9902; and 'others,' 20. In 1883 the *táluk* contained 2 civil and 5 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 9; and regular police, 166 men. Land revenue, £41,104. The South Indian Railway from Trichinopoli to Negapatam traverses the country.

Negapatam [*Nágai-pattanam*, 'Snake-town,' *Nigamos* (Gr.), *Nigama Metrop.* (Latin), the *Malifattan* of the Arab geographers (Yule), and *The City of Choramandel* of the early Portuguese].—Town and chief port of Tanjore District, Madras Presidency, and terminus of the South Indian Railway. Lat. 10° 45′ 37″ N., long. 79° 53′ 28″ E. Population (with Nagúr) in 1881, 53,855, namely, 24,305 males and 29,550 females; number of houses, 8616. Hindus numbered 36,328; Muhammadans, 12,408; Christians, 5118; and 'others,' 1. With the adjoining port of Nagúr, it forms a municipality; income in 1883–84, £4838; incidence of taxation, about 1s. 4½d. a head. Among the principal buildings are a Jesuit college, a Wesleyan mission establishment, and 2 large Hindu temples. There is also a fine dispensary, erected and chiefly maintained by local subscriptions. Negapatam contains the courts and offices of a sub-judge, a District *munsif*, a Head Assistant Collector, and a *tahsíldár*; and the chief Government salt depôt of Tanjore.

The port carries on an active trade with Ceylon, Burma, and the Straits Settlements; the imports consisting chiefly of cotton goods and areca-nuts, and the exports of rice and paddy. Average annual value of trade for the five years ending 1878—exports, £522,460; imports, £390,436. Imports (1880–81), value £245,916; exports, value £486,326. In 1883–84, the value of the imports into Negapatam was £337,887; and of the exports, £566,547. The imports were chiefly white bleached piece-goods (£26,000); spices (£87,000);

coal (£16,000), and gunny bags (£14 000) The exports were chiefly printed or dyed cotton manufactures (£166,000), live stock (£50 000), and *ghi* (£9000) Negapatam was one of the earliest settlements of the Portuguese on the Coromandel coast It was taken by the Dutch in 1660, and by the English in 1781 It was the residence of the Collector of Tanjore from the cession of the District to the British by treaty in 1799 until the year 1845, when the head-quarters were removed to Tranquebar, on the acquisition of that place by purchase from Denmark.

The population contains a large proportion (nearly 20 per cent) of Labbais, a Musalman people half Arab half Hindu in origin, who have developed a great capacity for trade They are a bold, active, and thrifty race, and have established prosperous colonies in Burma and the Straits Settlements with which countries they carry on a brisk trade The harbour has a fixed fourth order dioptric white light, on a white tower 79½ feet above the sea Rainfall (1882), 42 inches, mean temperature in shade 66° F rising to 102° F

Negrais —Island in Bassein District Lower Burma.—*See* HAING-GYI

Negrais —Cape in Bassein District Lower Burma Lat 16° 1 30" N, and long 94° 13 E. Cape Negrais is the south west promontory of the coast of Bassein The extreme southern point of that coast is called Thaygin or Pagoda Point, bearing nearly south south east from Cape Negrais, distant 6½ miles Near Pagoda Point is a large rock, with a small pagoda, red cliffs stretch from it towards Cape Negrais.

Nekmard —Fair held annually in Bhawanandpur village Dinajpur District, Bengal Lat 25° 59 N long 88° 18 30 E It takes its name from a Muhammadan *pir* or saint whose tomb is a place of pilgrimage The fair lasts six or seven days and is frequented by about 150,000 persons It is principally a cattle fair, but many varieties of articles are brought for sale —elephants from Dárjiling, the Bengal *tardi*, and Assam, dried fruits, embroidered saddlery, daggers, swords, etc, by Mughals and Afghans, blankets, walnuts, yak tails, etc, by the hill tribes, English piece goods, brass pots, hookahs, etc

Nelamangala —*Taluk* in Bangalore District, Mysore State Area, 209 square miles, of which 128 square miles are cultivated. Population (1881) 49,844, namely, 24 523 males and 25,321 females Hindus numbered 46,987, Muhammadans, 2637, Christians, 214, and Buddhists, 6 Total revenue (1883), £11,049 Soil—red mould, shallow, and gravelly, dependent upon the rainfall, dry crops—*ragi*, *ballar*, *save*, and gram, wet crops—rice, sugar-cane, and a little wheat In 1884, the *taluk* contained 1 criminal court, police circles (*thanas*), 6, regular police, 51 men, village watch (*chaukidars*), 129

Nelamangala.—Town in Bangalore District, Mysore State; situated in lat. 13° 6′ 10″ N., and long. 77° 26′ E., 17 miles by road north-west from Bangalore city. Head-quarters of the Nelamangala *táluk*. Population (1881) 3742. Built on the site of a ruined city, to which tradition gives the name of Bhumandana. A weekly fair on Friday is attended by 2500 persons.

Nelambúr.—Town (more correctly a group of hamlets) in Malabar District, Madras Presidency.—*See* NILAMBUR.

Nelambúr.—Town in Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency.—*See* NILAMBUR.

Nelliámpatí.—Range of hills situated chiefly within the limits of Cochin State, Madras Presidency; 20 miles south of the town of Pálghát. The Nelliámpatí range varies in height from 3000 to 5000 feet above sea-level. At an elevation from 1500 to 4000 feet, the hills are covered with forests which yield valuable timber, as well as cardamoms, ginger, pepper, etc. Large quantities of honey are collected by the Kaders, a jungle tribe inhabiting these hills, who are not unlike the Kurumbas of the Wainád. They live on roots and jungle produce, on mice and other small animals. They have no fixed settlements or regular occupation, except a little basket-weaving. They grow a small quantity of rice. In 1881 the Kaders numbered 624. Coffee has been grown on the Nelliámpatí hills since 1860. At first the want of labour was a great diffculty. Of late years, however, labour has been abundant, and cultivation has consequently increased. In 1883 there were 17 plantations in the Nelliámpatí range, covering an area of 3251 acres, of which 1939 acres were under mature, and 559 under immature plants. The approximate yield was 662,967 lbs.; average yield per acre of mature plants, 342 lbs.; cost per acre, £2, 7s. 6d. From 800 to 1000 labourers were employed on the plantations. The climate of the Nelliámpatí range is pleasant during a part of the year. In June, July, and August the monsoon is heavy, and high winds blow. The annual rainfall averages 150 to 160 inches. The thermometer ranges from 45° F. to 90° F.

Nellore (*Nellúr*).—British District of the Madras Presidency, situated on the eastern or Coromandel coast, between 13° 25′ and 15° 55′ N. lat., and between 79° 9′ and 80° 14′ E. long. On the east it is washed by the Bay of Bengal; its western boundary is formed by the Veligonda hills, which are offshoots of the Eastern Gháts, and which separate it from the Districts of Karnúl (Kurnool) and Cuddapah (Kadapa); north it is bordered by Kistna District; south by North Arcot and Chengalpat (Chingleput) Districts. Total area, 8739 square miles. Total population, according to the Census of 1881, 1,220,236 persons. The administrative head-quarters are at NELLORE TOWN.

Physical Aspects.—Nellore District occupies a tract of low land

stretching from the base of the Veligonda hills to the sea. Its general aspect is forbidding. The coast line is uniformly constituted by a fringe of blown sand. Farther inland, the country begins to rise. But the soil is not naturally fertile, and a large area of the District is either a rocky waste or covered with dense scrub jungle; few fine trees are to be found in the neighbourhood of village sites. Along the western frontier rises a barren range of hills, which throws out numerous spurs into the plain. The highest peaks are Penchala Konda, rising to an elevation of about 3000 feet above sea level, and the detached hill or *drug* of UDAYAGIRI, which has an elevation of 3079 feet, and is a prominent landmark in the District. A remarkable natural feature is the island of SRIHARIKOTA, a low ridge of sand which divides the LAKE OF PULIKAT from the main sea. Inhabited chiefly by scattered families of the wild tribe of Yanadis, most of it has never been brought under cultivation; but Madras city is regularly supplied with fuel from this otherwise unprofitable waste.

The chief rivers of Nellore are the PENNER, the SUVARNAMUKHI, and the GUNDLAKAMMA, which all rise in the table-land above the Ghats, and flow east through the District to the sea. The numerous minor streams are little more than mountain torrents, unavailable for irrigation. The Penner runs through the District for a total course of about 70 miles, passing by the town of Nellore. For nine months of the year its bed, which is rocky among the hills but sandy lower down, is almost dry, with deep pools here and there, into which the fish collect. The season of flood (full or partial) lasts altogether for about 90 days. The chief irrigation work on the Penner is the anicut at Nellore town, from which two main channels, with a system of sub-channels, are led off on the south bank. Another anicut is in course of construction at Sangam, 20 miles west of Nellore town, which will irrigate a large tract of country on the north of the river. The floods of the Suvarnamukhi also supply a series of irrigation channels.

Throughout the District generally, the underlying rocks belong to the metamorphic series, which occasionally crops up in the form of gneiss, schist, and quartz, and is intersected by veins of quartz and volcanic rocks. The Eastern Ghats, on the other hand, are capped by a series of sedimentary formation, chiefly altered sandstone and slate, known as the 'Cuddapah Group.' Organic remains of fern-like plants have been found in several places. A band of laterite, varying greatly in width, extends almost continuously for several miles inland, and is largely quarried for building material, and for the metal of roads. Copper was discovered in the western hills in 1801. The ore was found on assay to yield a large percentage of metal, and European capital was attracted to the spot. But the enterprise repeatedly proved unsuccessful, and no fresh attempt has been made since 1840.

Iron-ore, chiefly in the form of sand, is collected and smelted, according to native methods, in many places. It is worked up into tools, but no steel is manufactured. Saltpetre is made in several villages, but in small quantities, by refining down the nitrous earth to be found on the surface.

Wild animals are comparatively rare in Nellore. Tigers are now almost unknown, except when a stray one wanders across the mountains from Cuddapah. Leopards, bears, *sámbhar* deer, and occasionally bison, are still to be found among the western hills. Antelope, spotted deer, and wild hog are generally distributed, while the small game comprise snipe, duck, bustard, and floriken. Venomous reptiles abound. In 1881, the total number of reported deaths from wild beasts was 1, and from snake-bite, 117. The total amount paid in rewards for killing wild beasts and poisonous snakes was £16. The figures for 1883 were—deaths from wild beasts, 29; from snake-bites, 99; rewards paid, £64.

History.—Nellore possesses no independent history of its own. In primitive times it formed part of the ancient Division of Telingána, or the Telugu-speaking country, and passed successively under the rule of the Yadava, Chálukya, Kalyána, and Ganapatti dynasties. Lying on the frontier of the Tamil country, and not far from Orissa, it was frequently partitioned between the rival kingdoms which advanced or retreated during this troubled period. Many of the old temples in the District show by inscriptions that they were built or restored by Rájá Krishna Deva-ráyalu, the most powerful monarch of Vijayanagar of the Narapatti line, who reigned from 1509 to 1530. The earliest chieftain that can be localized in Nellore is named Mukunti, who, according to local tradition, lived in the 11th century, and was tributary to the Chola Rájás. It is possible that the tract was to a certain extent uninhabited till a comparatively recent period, and like the Districts of Cuddapah, Bellary, Anantápur, and Karnúl, formed part of the so-called desert of Dandaka. Hence, perhaps, the absence of any connected history or tradition, earlier than the time of the Chola kings. After Mukunti, in the 12th century, came one Siddi Rájá; and during the same period, the north of the District is said to have been under the rule of a number of petty chiefs, belonging to the Yadava or shepherd caste. The oldest native family now existing in Nellore is that of the Rájá of Venkatagiri, who professes to trace back an unbroken descent for twenty-seven generations. The traditions of the family recount numerous wars with the Muhammadans, who probably first invaded the country under Kafur in 1310, in the reign of Alá-úd-dín; but it was not permanently conquered until the time of the Kutab Sháhi dynasty at Golconda in 1687, when it was finally brought under Muhammadan dominion.

The first fact in the modern annals of Nellore is the settlement of the English at ARMAGON (Armeghon) in 1625 Expelled by the Dutch from the Spice Islands by the Massacre of Amboyna in 1623, the East India Company was induced to turn its attention to the Coromandel coast. The earliest factories were planted at Masulipatam and Petta poli, now Nizámpatam, in 1611 but fourteen years later Mr Francis Day, *the future founder of Madras, being probably still pressed by* Dutch rivalry, migrated southward to the little village of Durgarája patnam (or Durgarázapatam) Here he built a fort and called its name after Armugam Mudelliar, the head man of the village who had shown him hospitality Fourteen years afterwards, in 1639 Armagon in its turn gave way to Fort St George or Madras and its historic name is now preserved only by an insignificant lighthouse

Nellore town first emerges into history during the Karnátik wars of the 18th century, when the English and French were contesting the supremacy of the East It formed part of the dominions of the Nawáb of the Karnátik, and possessed considerable strategic importance as commanding the northern high road and the passage of the Penner In 1753 it was the appanage of Najib ullá a brother of the Nawáb Muhammad Alí whom English support had placed upon the throne In that year, a military adventurer, named Muhammad Komal, drove Najib ullá out of Nellore and threatened to sack the Tiru pati (Tripatty) Pagoda, which had been pledged to the English Muhammad Komal repulsed the first detachment that was sent against him from Madras but shortly afterwards he was defeated and taken prisoner, though with the loss of the English officer in command

Nellore was the scene of a more serious affair in 1757, when Najib ullá himself rebelled against the authority of his brother, the Nawáb An army of 10,000 men was marched against him including a contingent under the command of Colonel Forde, which consisted of 100 Europeans, 56 Kaffirs (*sic in Orme*), 300 Sepoys 1 18 pounder, 3 6 pounders, and a howitzer Najib-ullá left the town of Nellore to be defended by a garrison of 3000 men, assisted by 20 Frenchmen *from Masulipatam After a few days' bombardment from the artillery*, a breach was made in the mud wall, which Colonel Forde thought practicable, but the storming party, composed of the entire English contingent, was repulsed with loss, and Colonel Forde was shortly afterwards recalled to Madras. Najib-ullá remained in arms through the following year, and played off the Maráthás and Basálat Jang against the English At last, in the beginning of 1759, when he heard that the French besieging army under Lally had been compelled to withdraw from before Madras, he sent in his submission, and was reappointed Governor of the District, at an annual tribute of 30,000

15,267, Ambattans (barbers), 12,869, Vannáns (washermen), 33,070, others (outcastes, etc) 317,759 The Muhammadans are sub divided as follows —Arabs, 17, Labbais, 237, Mughals, 59, Pathâns, 239, Sayyids, 326, Shaikhs, 2290, 'others,' 58,176 Of the Christians (20,794), 8833 are returned as Protestants, 7498 as Baptists, 946 as Roman Catholics, and 3517 profess other creeds

The Census divides the male population into six main groups as regards occupation —(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, and members of the learned professions, 17,655, (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 2821, (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 17,498, (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 273,964, (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 100,189, and (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 203,205

Of the 1688 towns and villages in Nellore District, in 1881, 375 contained less than two hundred inhabitants, 493 from two to five hundred, 466 from five hundred to one thousand, 259 from one to two thousand, 60 from two to three thousand, 27 from three thousand to five thousand, 7 from five to ten thousand, 1 from twenty thousand to fifty thousand The following are the most considerable towns — NELLORE (27,505), ONGOLE (9200), VENKATAGIRI (7989), KANDUKUR (6601), ADDANKI (6481), KAVALI (4927), and GUDUR (4862) Nellore and Ongole are municipalities with an aggregate income in 1882–83 of £4779, incidence of municipal taxation in Nellore, 1s 6¼d, and in Ongole, 1s 5¼d

Four Christian missions are established in the District—(1) the Roman Catholic Mission, which has a chapel, with an endowment from land of about £54 a year, (2) the American Baptist Mission, which dates from 1840, and has 3 stations, (3) the school at Nellore town for both boys and girls, made over to the Free Church of Scotland Mission in 1848, and (4) the Hermansburg Lutheran Mission, founded in 1865, which now possesses 8 stations, with 12 missionaries from Germany

Among the wild or aboriginal tribes of Nellore, the Yanadis are probably the most numerous, but the Census of 1881 enumerates only 148 They numbered 20,000 in 1865, and were to be found in all parts of the District, except in the extreme north, but the little colony in the island of Sriharikota has attracted special interest In 1835, when this island first came into the possession of Government, the Yanadis were found in the most degraded state of savagery Government instituted measures to ameliorate their condition, and to wean them from their half savage state, but they still prefer their wild life in the jungles, and refuse to cultivate the soil or rear cattle They are a

lbs were—rice, 4s, wheat, 6s, inferior food-grains, 2s, indigo, £15, 8s, cotton, £1, 8s, salt, 6s, and sugar, £1, 10s The daily rates of wages were—for skilled labour, 1s, for unskilled labour, 4d Of recent years there has been an upward tendency in the rate of wages

The *irrigation* of Nellore District is not comprehended under a single system The chief work is the anicut (*anakatte*) across the Penner river near Nellore town, constructed in 1854 to provide irrigation for the lands lying on the south bank This anicut is 677 yards in length, and during the flood of 30th November 1882 the highest on record, had 19 feet 2 inches of water, in depth, passing over its crest. Up to 1880-81, the total amount of capital expended on this undertaking has been £174,174, the gross income in that year was £14,592, which, after deducting cost of repairs, etc, and interest on capital at the rate of 5 per cent, left a net profit of £4000 The total net income from this work up to 1881-82 was £27 500 Another anicut is now (1884) being constructed higher up the Penner, which will provide irrigation for lands north of the river The other Government irrigation works comprise 665 tanks, 84 river channels, 25 spring channels, 83 anicuts, and 671 wells Among first class tanks in the District, Kanigiri and Allúr in the Nellore *taluk*, and Anantaságaram and Kalavya in the Atmakur *taluk*, deserve mention In 1881-82, the total irrigated area was returned at 199,193 acres, yielding an assessment of £73,918, the total amount expended by Government on irrigation being £8239 In addition, irrigation is everywhere conducted on private account, chiefly from wells, tanks, and spring channels

Cattle—The live stock returns in 1882-83 were as follows —Cattle, 252,110, goats, 121,227, sheep, 216,934, donkeys, 14,850, horses and ponies, 1015, and pigs, 12,859 Dead stock—ploughs, 66,047, carts, 13,614, and boats, 78 Nellore is famous for its breed of cattle, which are largely exported to neighbouring Districts. Historically, it is said that the farmers devoted themselves to cattle breeding, in despair of obtaining remunerative returns from agriculture The Nellore bullocks are found in greatest perfection in the northern *taluks* bordering on Kistna District The value of a good bull ranges from £7 to £20 An annual cattle show is held at the village of Addanki in January Sheep and goats are chiefly found in the barren *táluks* in the west

Forests—The chief range of forest country in Nellore District lies along the Veligonda Hills, on the eastern slopes of the range in the *táluks* of Rápur, Atmakur, Udayagiri, and Kanigiri In these forests the red sanders tree (Pterocarpus santalinus) occurs, as well as Hardwickia binata, Pterocarpus marsupium, and teak, with other valuable kinds It is proposed to bring them into the class of reserved

for its textile fabrics A speciality was the weaving of 'blue *salam pores*,' which found a ready market among the negroes in the West Indies No cotton goods are now exported, but spinning and weaving for local consumption is still carried on in many villages The total number of looms in 1881–82 was returned at 8825, and their estimated consumption was 391,648 lbs of cotton, the total value of their produce was £27,693 At the village of Kovur near Nellore town, fine shirtings and pocket handkerchiefs can still be obtained to order on a limited scale Other industries are the weaving of hempen cloth, dyeing, the making of vessels of brass, copper, and bell metal, the carving of images, pillars, and cart-wheels from stone mat making and boat building These are carried on only on a small scale

The trade of the District has considerably decreased since the time before the opening of the railway, when it formed the high road between the interior and the sea coast In those days the cotton of Cuddapah and Karnul (Kurnool) was brought down on pack bullocks to be exchanged for the salt of Nellore The sea borne trade, now confined almost entirely to grain, is carried on in coasting craft, though formerly large ships used to carry salt to Bengal In 1881–82 the total value of the exports amounted to £13 211, namely, merchandise, £13,071, and treasure, £140 The imports were valued at £1502, consisting purely of merchandise The average annual value of exports for five years ending 1883–84 was £17,423, and of imports, £2982 In 1883–84 the value of exports was £24,797—the chief items being grain, bones, and seeds, imports, £866—chiefly rice, black gram, and tobacco The two principal ports are Kottapatam and Itamukkula, both in the extreme north of the District

Indigo, which is manufactured almost entirely by natives, in accordance with what is known as the Bengal system is sent by land and by the Buckinghan Canal to Madras to the amount of about 800,000 lbs a year Of recent years, there has been a considerable decrease in the manufacture of salt, owing to the circumstance that the foreign demand is now supplied from other quarters In 1880–81, the total quantity made was 605,691 *maunds*, or 22,172 tons, valued at £62,780, of which 240,697 *maunds*, or 8811 tons, were exported by sea, and 338,521 *maunds*, or 12,392 tons, were despatched inland In 1882–83, the total quantity made was 541,174 *maunds*, or 19,880 tons, valued at £108,235, of which none was exported by sea, but 234,864 *maunds* were despatched inland

There is no railway in the District, but one has been commenced which is to run from Tirupati (Tripatty) station on the north west line of Madras Railway to Nellore town The chief means of land communication is the Great Northern Trunk Road, which runs parallel with the coast through the whole length of the District. A branch known as the

Dorenal road, leading to Cuddapah, strikes off from Nellore town, while another branch leads from Ongole to Haidarábád. The Krishnapatam road connects Nellore town with the Buckingham Canal, which for at least nine months of the year is in good working order. The canal connects the District with Kistna in the north, and with Madras in the south.

Administration.—In 1883-84, the total net revenue of Nellore District amounted to £401,294, derived from the following sources:—Land, £250,464; salt, £120,884; excise, £13,036; licence tax, £1773; stamps, £15,137. The total expenditure in the same year was £54,261, under the following heads:—Land-tax, £18,774; justice, 6777; police, 13,812; provincial, £3250; salt, £11,648. The District was first ceded to the British in 1801; and for the ten years ending 1810, the gross revenue averaged £181,572, so that it has more than doubled since that time.

In 1883-84 the police force numbered 1176 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £13,812. These figures show 1 policeman to every 7 square miles and every 1037 of the population, the cost being £1, 10s. 7½d. per square mile, and 2¼d. per head of population. The Nellore jail contained in 1883 a daily average number of 124 prisoners, being 1 prisoner always in jail to every 9839 of the District population.

In 1870 there were in Nellore District only 246 schools, attended by 5178 pupils. The educational statistics for 1883-84 show a total of 440 schools, attended by 11,000 pupils, being 1 school to every 20 square miles, and 9 pupils to every thousand of the population. The Census of 1881 disclosed 13,048 as under instruction, of whom 810 were girls; besides 52,382 not under instruction but able to read and write, of whom 2681 were females. The chief educational institutions are the Free Church Mission school, and the Hindu Anglo-vernacular higher class school, in Nellore town, both assisted by grants-in-aid. Sixteen students passed the matriculation examination from them in 1880-81. In the District the more important schools are, the Government middle class, and the Baptist Mission School at Ongole; and local fund middle-class schools at Venkatagiri, Naidupet, and Kandakur.

The language spoken in Nellore is Telugu; and local tradition claims for the District that it is the head-quarters of Telugu literature. A list is enumerated of 33 Nellore poets, including some who are still alive. The petty chieftains have always prided themselves upon their patronage of letters; and some of them possess old libraries. The most famous Nellore authors are Thikana Somayajulu, who translated the *Mahábhárata* from Sanskrit into Telugu, and is said to have flourished in the 12th century; Molla, a poetess con-

temporary with the preceding, who translated the *Ramayana*, and Alasani Peddana, the poet laureate at the court of Rája Krishna Deva rayalu (1509–30), whose reign is regarded as the Augustan era of Telugu poetry There is one printing press in the District, at which the *Nellore Gazette* is published monthly in English and Telugu

Medical Aspects — The climate of Nellore is generally regarded as dry and salubrious being subject to no sudden changes of temperature The most trying season for Europeans is the period from April to June, when the westerly wind blows from the inland plateau The monthly mean temperature varies from about 74° F in December to 90° in May The District receives its rainfall from both the north east and the south west monsoons, the former predominating in the north, and the latter in the south The average annual rainfall for six years ending 1875 was returned at 36 4 inches, of which 22 15 inches were brought by the north east or early and 14 32 inches by the south west or late, monsoon The rainfall in 1882 83 was 33 6 inches The rainy months are June and July October November and December In the famine year of 1876–77 both monsoons failed, and the total rainfall amounted to only 12 32 inches or a deficiency of 21 15 inches In 1882, however, between May and December, 48 inches were gauged at Nellore

The principal diseases are intermittent fever of a mild type, chronic rheumatism, leprosy, elephantiasis or Cochin leg, the curious affection of the foot known as Morbus entophyticus pedis, cancer of the face, and guinea worm Diarrhœa and dysentery are common, and both cholera and small pox often make their appearance in an epidemic form The dispensary at Nellore town was attended in 1880–81 by 396 in-door and 12,762 out door patients Total number of persons vaccinated (1880), 13 073, total cost, £718 [For further information regarding Nellore District, see *Manual of the Nellore District*, by Mr J A. C Boswell, C S (Madras Government Press, 1873) Also the *Settlement Report of Nellore District*, by Mr C Rundall, 1870, the *Madras Census Report* for 1881, and the several annual Administration and Depart mental Reports of the Madras Government.]

Nellore —*Taluk* or Sub-division of Nellore District, Madras Presidency Area, 638 square miles Population (1881) 163,740, namely, 81,167 males and 82,573 females Hindus numbered 150,708, Muhammadans, 11,894, Christians, 1121, and 'others,' 17 The *táluk* contains 1 town and 151 villages, with 33,975 houses In Nellore *taluk* there is comparatively little jungle, there is [illegible] cultivation in the eastern villages, but a good deal in the [illegible] channels from the south side of the [illegible] numerous feeders to the different tanks, [illegible] area of [illegible] cultivation All land that can be [illegible]

and the prosperity of the cultivators is yearly increasing. Towards the south the ground is high and covered with brushwood. Large quantities of laterite are quarried in the neighbourhood of Nellore town, and used for building and for the repairs of roads. In 1883 there were 2 civil and 5 criminal courts (including head-quarters courts); police circles (*thánás*), 14; regular police, 270 men. Total revenue, £54,676.

Nellore (*Nellúru; Nelli-uru*, the village of the *nelli* tree, *Phyllanthus Emblica*).—Chief town of Nellore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 14° 26′ 38″ N., long. 80° 1′ 27″ E., on the right bank of the Penner, 107 miles north of Madras. Population (1881) 27,505, namely, 13,357 males and 14,148 females; number of houses, 5800. Of the population, 22,128 are Hindus, 4672 Muhammadans, 700 Christians, and 5 'others.' Municipal income (1882-83), £3611, of which £2254 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 6¾d.

Nellore town, which is traditionally said to be situated in the famous wilderness *Dandaka Aranyam*, is of considerable antiquity. Its ancient name was *Sinhapur* ('lion city'); later it was called *Durgametta*, a name which survives in one of its suburbs. It was held by the Venkatagiri *zamíndárs* till the Musalmán period, and in 1750 formed a *faujdári* of Arcot. In 1752 the town was seized by a freebooter named Muhammad Komal, who was captured and executed twelve months later. Najíb-ullá, the governor, revolted in 1757, and the English forces under Forde assisted in an unsuccessful siege of the town. The Maráthás and the French both visited Nellore in 1758. The latter were received as friends; but on the raising of the siege of Fort Saint George in the same year, Najíb-ullá murdered all the French soldiers in the town save one, and gave in his submission to the English.

In 1787, while a peasant was ploughing near the town, he struck upon the remains of a Hindu temple, beneath which was found a pot containing gold coins. About thirty of these were saved from the melting pot, and they proved to be Roman *aurei* of the 2nd century A.D.; chiefly bearing the names of Trajan, Hadrian, and Faustina. Some were beautifully fresh, but others were worn and perforated, as if they had been used as personal ornaments. When the anicut across the Penner was being constructed, the workmen engaged in excavating a bed of laterite found several coffins, apparently of burnt clay, embedded in quartz. Some of these coffins contained more than one body each; and when at first seen, the bodies were in a perfect state of preservation, although they quickly crumbled to dust. There were also found with them spear-heads and other implements.

The town of Nellore is tolerably clean and airy. The houses

are irregularly built, but there are some good streets occupied by the wealthier inhabitants Since the establishment of the Municipal Commission in 1865, much has been done towards removing the most patent sanitary defects The houses of the European residents are on the south of the town, along the bank of a large tank, on the farther side of which rises the temple-crowned hill of Narasinha Konda The offices of the Collector are in the old fort, opposite stands the police office, which was formerly a range of barracks The hospital, built in 1850 by public subscription and Government grant, is now under the control and management of the municipality Other charitable institutions include the *langarkhana*, or poorhouse for natives, which receives an annual Government grant of £294, and the European Poor Fund, supported by voluntary subscriptions, which distributes about £40 a year in grants to European vagrants Christ's Church was built in 1854-66 at a total cost for material of £450, convict labour being given by Government It is in the Gothic style of architecture, with a chancel and two aisles, there are sittings for 128 persons The old cemetery has about 160 tombs, the oldest of which dates back to 1785 Among educational establishments are a school for European and Eurasian children, a large boys school and a girls' school under the charge of the Free Church of Scotland, and schools for boys and girls conducted by the American Baptist Mission

Nellore town is connected with Madras by the Northern Trunk Road, and also by the newly opened Buckingham Canal and with the Madras Railway at Renugunta station, distant 70 miles A railway is now under construction which will connect Nellore with Tirupati (Tripatty) station on the north west line of the Madras Railway

Neo Dhura (also called *Rangbtlang*)—Pass in Kumaun District, North Western Provinces, over the Himalayas into Hundes or South western Tibet, lies in lat 30° 29 N, and long 80° 37 E, at the head of the Dhauli river Much frequented by Bhutias of Dharma, who carry on a brisk trade with Hundes by means of pack sheep and goats They export grain, broad-cloth, cotton, hardware, and manufactured goods generally, bringing back in return salt, gold dust, borax, and wool Elevation above sea level, about 15,000 feet

Neotini—Town in Unao District, Oudh, situated on the right bank of the Sái, 2 miles south west of Mohan The town is said to have been founded by a Dikhit, Rája Ram, who on a hunting expedition saw the spot, and, attracted by its beauty, cut away some of the thin grass that grew there, and founded a town which he called Neotini An old *dih* in the place is still assigned as the site of his fort It was held by the Dikhits till the time of Rájá Apre, who was driven out in the time of Mahmúd of Ghazní by an army headed by Mírán Muhammad and Zahir ud din, whose descendants still live here A prosperous little

Muhammadan town, with a population in 1881 of 3320 persons. The soil around the town is extremely rich, and well cultivated with crops of *pán* creepers, poppy, vegetables, spices, and medicinal herbs. Government school.

Nepál.—Independent kingdom, included in the southern ranges of the Himálayas, beyond the northern boundary of British India. Nepál, as independent territory, is beyond the strict scope of this book, but some account of it may be expected in *The Imperial Gazetteer of India.* It would be unsuitable, however, that any appearance of official authority should attach to this account of a purely foreign State. To prevent such a misapprehension, this article is confined to materials already before the public, the chief of which are:—Colonel Kirkpatrick's and Dr. Buchanan's narratives; Sir C. U. Aitchison's *Treaties and Engagements;* and the essays of Mr. Brian Houghton Hodgson. With the kind permission of Messrs. A. & C. Black, the article on Nepál in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*—the ablest concise account of the country which has yet been made available to the public—has been also largely used for the purposes of this article. Alterations have been made with a view to bringing the facts up to date.

The great authority on Nepál is Mr. Brian Houghton Hodgson of the Bengal Civil Service, who was for long Resident at Khatmandu. Mr. Hodgson's works form a rich treasure-house with regard to the history, ethnology, and languages of the country; its government in the past, and its capabilities in the future. A volume containing a translation of the ancient history of the country by two native Pandits from the *Parbatiyá*, with an introduction by Dr. Daniel Wright, late Residency Surgeon at Khatmandu, published by the Cambridge University Press in 1877, and historical and descriptive sketches by Dr. Henry Ambrose Oldfield, also for many years surgeon at Khatmandu, are available in recent years. Sir Joseph Hooker and the brothers Schlagentweit have furnished much valuable information with regard to the physical features and natural products of the Southern Himálayas—the region of which Nepál forms the largest territorial division.

Boundaries.—The northern boundary of Nepál marches with Tibet. It runs along elevated regions, which are for the most part desolate and uninhabited. This circumstance probably accounts for the absence of any scientifically defined frontier between the two countries. On the west, the Kálí or Sarda river separates Nepál from the British Province of Kumáun; on the south-west and south the British Districts of Pilibhít, Kheri, Bahráich, Gonda, Basti, Gorakhpur, Champáran, Muzaffarpur, Darbhangah, Bhágalpur, and Purniah constitute the boundary, the line of frontier running through the plains at a varying distance (up to about 30 miles) from the foot of the Himálayas, except

in the cases of the Dundwa hills above Eastern Oudh, where the skirt of the hills is the boundary, and of the Sumesar hills, above north-western Champaran, where the watershed of the hills is the boundary On the east, Nepal is bounded by the Mechi river, the Singatha ridge, and the hill principality of Sikkim Strictly speaking, the name Nepal applies only to the valley in which Khatmandu is situated. But throughout this account, the word is taken to represent the kingdom which the dominant race of Gurkhalis has been gradually establishing, for the most part within the period of British rule in India, to the south of the Himálayan watershed, and between the rivers Sarda and Mechha

Nepál lies, with an inclination from north west to south east, between the extremes of north latitude 26° 25′ and 30° 17, and of east longitude 80° 6 and 88° 14 Its greatest length is about 512 miles The breadth varies from 70 to 150 miles The total area has been computed at about 54 000 square miles The estimate of population ranges from the British Government s assumed total of 2,000,000 to the Nepalese Darbár's higher figure of from 5 200,000 to 5 600 000 As there has never been a Census of the country, both estimates are arbitrary, although there are reasons for supposing the British figures to be nearer the truth

The chief administrative divisions are —In the hills Baitari, Doti and Acham Tumla, Satiana, Dhang and Deskhm Palpa and Pokhra, Gurkha and Khatmandu Sindhulia, Dhankuta, Ilam In the Tarái Naya Mulk ('new territory,' ceded in 1860), Batwal, Newalpur and Chitawan, Pursa Bara and Rotahat, Sirlahi and Mihtari Suptari, and Murang With scarcely an exception, these Districts are governed by Gurkhalí officers

Aspect of the Country —The surface of Nepál is extremely diversified Among its lofty summits is Mount Everest (in the vernacular '*Dudh Gangi*,' *i e* the Ganges of Milk), which, with an elevation of 29 002 feet, is the highest known summit of the globe, whilst almost the whole mountain system along which the northern boundary runs is at or above the level of perpetual snow All the most prominent peaks or groups of peaks stand in advance, or, in other words, to the south of the elevated ground which forms the southern watershed of the Sanpu, or great river of Tibet, and which is, so to speak, the backbone of the mountain barrier between Tibet and India. The peaks are connected with the watershed, and from them ridges with dependent spurs project, which serve as lateral barriers to the three great river basins of the Kurnali, the Gandak, and the Kosi These basins have a southward slope, being broad at the top where they leave the southern watershed of the Sanpu, and gradually contracting like a fan from its rim to the handle. The similar slope of the huge ridges of Api,

Diwálagiri, Gosainthán, and Kanchanjanga, and their numerous spurs and offshoots, which overrule the effects of all other intervening inequalities of surface, however vast, cause the several groups of mountain streams between them to converge until they unite and constitute the three main rivers mentioned above.

The valley of Khatmandu is drained by the comparatively small stream of the Bagmati, which rises on the northern face of the hills overlooking the capital on the north. The drainage of the Tarái is for the most part of purely local origin. In this intimately connected system of mountains and rivers are found at greatly differing elevations the considerable valleys of Sumla, Khatmandu, Pokhra, Dhang, Deskhin, and Chitawan. Otherwise, so far as is known, the hill country is close and confined, abounding in narrow and deep tortuous valleys, in section like a V. The average elevation of the valley of Khatmandu, measured by the barometer, is about 4000 feet. It is of an ovoid or egg shape, with a maximum length from east to west of about 20 miles, and a maximum breadth of 15 miles from north to south. Although it is in no higher latitude than 27° 35′ to 27° 50′ north, yet it enjoys nearly the same climate as the south of Europe. The average shade temperature in a house at Khatmandu in summer varies from 81° to 86° F. At sunrise it is commonly between 60° and 64°, and at nine in the evening it generally fluctuates from 70° to 75°. The temperature varies necessarily with the elevation of the ground; so that by ascending the adjacent mountains, the heat of the plains may in the course of a few days be exchanged for the cold of perpetual snow.

Agriculture.—The products vary with the climate. In some parts rattans and bamboos, often of considerable dimensions, are seen, while other tracts produce only oaks and pines. In several hill valleys the pine-apple and sugar cane ripen, whilst others yield only barley, millets, and similar grains. Kirkpatrick, from the spontaneous productions which he saw on the spot—namely, the peach, the raspberry, the walnut, the mulberry, and others—thought that all the fruits and esculent vegetables of England might with proper attention be successfully raised in the mountain valleys of Nepál. Later experience in the gardens of the British Residency tends to confirm his views, as, with the exception of September, there is not a month in which European fruits or vegetables of some kind cannot, with due care, be grown. In the warmer valleys the pine-apple is good and abundant; so too is the orange, which ripens in winter. Some fruits in the hills spoil owing to the excessive dampness of the rainy season.

This moisture is, however, very favourable to the production of Indian corn, rice, and other summer crops. On many a piece of land three crops are grown in the year—wheat or barley, or buckwheat

or mustard in the winter, radishes or garlic or potatoes in the spring, and Indian corn, rice, or pepper during the rains. The hills are terraced very high up their slopes, and the fields thus obtained are chiefly utilized for pulses and cereals, other than the transplanted rice, which is grown in the lower lands, and for mustard, madder, sugar cane, and cardamoms. The latter require to be near running water. Ginger is a valuable product in the hill country between Nepal proper and the Kalí river.

Rice is everywhere the main food of the people. Various dry rices are cultivated in Nepál, under the general name of *ghya*, some of which, so far from needing hot weather to bring them to maturity, are actually raised in exposed situations, whilst others do not require, as in Bengal, to be flooded, but flourish in the driest and loftiest spots.

Throughout the hills, scarcely a plough or a cart is to be seen, hand labour being the almost universal agent for the preparation of the soil. Great store is laid on the use of household and cattle manure, and also of a blue unctuous looking clay which has remarkable fertilizing qualities. In the Tarái, the chief crops are rice, opium, rape, linseed, tobacco, and *ushur*. Irrigation is frequent throughout the country.

The most important of the forest trees in the Tarái are the *sál*, which is of great value for sleepers and house beams owing to its durability, strength, straightness, and size; the Mimosa, from which the catechu of commerce is derived; the *sisu*; and the *bhanja*, the wood of which is in much request for cart axles. Cotton trees, acacias, and tree figs are not unfrequent. The hill forests contain oak, holly, rhododendron, maple, chestnut, walnut, *champ r*, hornbeam, pines, and firs in abundance, but the timber is of little use, except locally, owing to the inaccessible nature of the country. The cherry, the pear, and the tea tree, as well as the laurel, the alder, the willow, and the oleander, are all found wild.

The spontaneous productions of the soil include several edible roots and herbs, which form a considerable part of the sustenance of the poorer inhabitants. Several medicinal plants are known, and a rich variety of dyes is procured from bitter or aromatic woods, which are held in great estimation. The *jia* is a species of hemp, from the leaves of which is expressed a juice called *charas*, which is a potent narcotic, and possesses very valuable qualities, burning with a flame as bright as that of the purest resin. Its leaves are fabricated into a fibre, from which the Newars manufacture coarse linen, and likewise a very strong kind of sackcloth.

Animals.—The mountain pasture, though not so good as in the low country, supports numerous flocks of sheep, which migrate with the seasons, in winter to the lower valleys, and in summer to the

Himálayan heights, where they feed upon the herbage of those extensive tracts which lie in the neighbourhood of perpetual snow. The sheep in these altitudes are of considerable size, and have fine wool. In the great forests which are frequent on or near the southern frontier of Nepál, throughout its whole extent from the Sarda to the Tístá (Teesta), wild animals abound. Elephants are still found in considerable numbers on the lower and central hills, and their capture is the great sport of Nepál. The rhinoceros, tiger, and leopard abound in the *tarái*, and there are species of the two latter peculiar to the hills. Deer are common throughout the country. The animal known in Bengal by the name of the Nepál dog is brought from Upper and Lower Tibet, of which it is a native. Several handsome birds are found in the mountainous regions, particularly pheasants (*manál*, Argus Damphyra) of golden and spotted plumage (Lophophorus Impeyanus, Ceriornis Satyra, Melegris Satyra). The *chikor*, a species of partridge, is well known to Europeans in India.

Minerals.—The stones and ores, that have been collected, indicate the existence of a variety of minerals in the mountains of Nepál. Copper is found quite near the surface of the earth, the ore being dug from open trenches, so that the work is entirely stopped by the rainy season. These ores are found in several varieties, and are said to be unusually rich in metal. Iron ore is also found near the surface, and is not surpassed in purity by that of any other country. Sulphur is likewise abundant, and procured in great quantities. Stone is found in great variety, particularly jasper and marble; but the houses are universally built of brick, because the use of stone is impracticable in a country where the roads do not admit of wheel-carriage, and where there is no navigation. A considerable mass of rock-crystal is said to exist near Gúrkha, and limestone as well as slate abounds everywhere; yet limekilns are scarce, mud being the cement preferred, because, as the natives assert, it answers better in their humid climate than mortar.

Population.—The numerous valleys interspersed throughout the mountains of Nepál are inhabited by a variety of races. The aboriginal inhabitants appear, from their physiognomy, to be of Tartar or Chinese origin, bearing no resemblance to the Hindus either in features, religion, or manners. The period when the mountainous regions were first invaded by the Hindus is uncertain; but, according to the most authentic traditions, the date is supposed to have been about the 14th century. In the eastern part of the country, aboriginal tribes still remain; and until the predominance of the Gúrkhas, they enjoyed unmolested their customs and religion. In Kumáun, which lies to the west of the Kálí or Sarda river, and which passed from Nepálese to British sovereignty in the early part of this century, the case is different,

almost all the inhabitants claiming a descent from Hindu colonists. They accordingly consist principally of the two superior classes of Hindus, Brahmans and Kshattriyas, with their various sub divisions

To the east of the Kali, the chief tribes which possessed the country were—(1) Magars, who originally occupied the lower hills in the western parts between the Bheri and Marsyandi rivers, and who, with the Gurangs and the Khus, form the majority of the Gurkhali army, (2) the Gurangs, whose home is between the Magars and the snow, (3) the Newars, who are the aborigines of the valley of Khatmandu, and whose stout opposition to the Gurkhali invaders in the last century has deprived them of the chance of military service under their present masters they are good agriculturists, keen traders, and less backward in the mechanical arts than most of the other mountain tribes, (4) the Limbus, Kirantis, and Lepchas, inhabiting the hill country between Khatmandu and the Sikkim and Darjiling frontier, (5) the Bhutias to the north of Khatmandu and the last named three tribes, (6) the Kaswars, Denwars, Tharus, and other malaria proof tribes belong to the low valleys and Tarai Predominant over the above are the Gurkhalis, whose principal Brahman sub-divisions are those of Panre and Upadhya, and Rajput sub divisions are those of Khus and Thappa. The ancestors of the Gurkhalis were mainly of Rajput origin, and are said to have migrated from Rájputana during the successes of the Afghan house of Gaur, at the end of the 12th century A D. Their first Himálayan home was in Kumáun, and thence they gradually moved eastwards, intermarrying with the hill women, until they reached Gurkha, where they remained for about a couple of hundred years before their connection with Nepal proper began Like all tribes of mixed race, they are great sticklers for the forms and ceremonies of their primitive (Hindu) religion, and are gradually, like their brothers in British India, absorbing into the fold of Hinduism the various aboriginal races whom they have conquered. It is a mere question of time when Buddhism, which is still the nominal creed of many Newars, Bhutias, and other subject races, shall be wholly merged in Hinduism

Land is held by various tenures. The Rája's immediate estates are chiefly situated in the Gurkha territory, though there is hardly any portion of the Gurkha conquests in which the prince has not appropriated land to his own use Some of these domains are occupied by husbandmen, who receive a share of the produce, others are tilled by the neighbouring villagers, who are obliged to dedicate a certain number of days in the year to this service From this source the Rája draws all the supplies necessary for the support of his household The Bráhmans also possess lands, the title to which is generally derived from royal favour. These grants are mostly rent free, saleable, and heredi

tary; but they may nevertheless be forfeited for certain crimes. Another tenure, found chiefly among the Newars, is the payment of a considerable fine when the original titles are renewed on the accession of each prince. Other lands pay a rent to the crown, or to the *jágír-dár* (proprietor), in proportion to their produce. The bulk of the army is paid by the assignment of lands renewed yearly.

Military Force.—All the martial tribes of Nepál are liable to military service in times of public danger, though all are not regularly trained to arms. There is also a standing irregular force dispersed throughout the country, numbering 13,000 effective men, besides a large body of regulars always stationed in and near the capital, numbering about 17,000 effective men. These troops are regularly trained, disciplined, and officered after the manner of European troops. The material is good, but the drill is indifferently taught, the firearms (Enfield rifles of local manufacture) and accoutrements and dress, which are on the European pattern, are uncared for, and the officers have only an elementary knowledge of their duties. The artillery mainly consists of small home-made field-pieces which would be of no value except at comparatively close quarters. The Nepál Government is fully alive to the shortcomings of its armament, and loses no opportunity for improvement which may present itself. A system of short service has long been in force, and it is calculated that three times the number of men with the colours could at a month's notice be brought into the field.

Revenue.—The public revenue is derived from land rents, customs, fines of various sorts, timber, monopolies, and mines. Annual presents are made by the *subahs* or governors, and by every one who approaches the court; and at times, as on the accession of a new sovereign or of a royal marriage, a forced contribution is levied from all ranks, even the sacred order, who possess free lands, not being exempted. According to Colonel Kirkpatrick, who visited the country in 1792, and who derived his information from good authority, the revenue actually remitted to Khatmandu never exceeded 30 *lákhs* of rupees (£300,000), and it sometimes fell to 25 *lákhs.* At present it probably does not exceed 100 *lákhs* (£1,000,000) of Indian rupees a year. But in considering these figures, the fact that the army is for the most part paid in land must be borne in mind. This form of payment represents for the regular troops alone at least 40 *lákhs* (£400,000) annually.

Commerce.—The external trade of Nepál falls under two heads—that which is carried on across the Himálayas with Tibet, and that which is conducted along the extensive line of the British frontier. Of the extent of the former trade, very little is positively known. The chief route runs north-east from Khatmandu, and, following up a tributary of the Kosi, passes the trans-frontier station of Kuti or Nilam

at an elevation of about 14,000 feet above sea level Another route, also starting from Khatmandu, follows the main eastern stream of the Gandak, crosses the frontier near the station of Kirang (9000 feet), and ultimately reaches the Sanpu river at Tadam This was the path adopted by Captain Montgomerie's native explorer in 1866 Both these routes are extremely difficult The only beasts of burthen available are sheep and goats, and practically everything but grain and salt is carried by men and women The principal imports from Tibet are *pashmina* or shawl wool, coarse woollen cloth, salt, borax musk yak tails or *chauris*, yellow arsenic, quick silver, gold dust, antimony, *manjit* or madder, *charas* (an intoxicating preparation of hemp), various medicinal drugs and dried fruits The majority of these articles pass through Nepál on their way to British territory The exports into Tibet from Nepál include metal utensils of copper, bell metal, and iron, manufactured by the Newars, European piece goods and hard ware, Indian cotton goods, spices, tobacco, areca nut and betel leaf, metals, and precious stones

The trade with India is conducted at various marts along the frontier line of 700 miles The commercial policy of the Nepál Government, which is based on the requirements of the State treasury rather than on the principle of protection subjects most articles of export and import to the payment of duty, which is heavy in the case of luxuries, and lighter in the case of necessaries At every mart and on every trade route a toll station is established, and the tolls are sometimes let by auction to a *thikadár* or farmer A few articles, such as timber, ivory, copper *pice*, salt, cardamoms, and tobacco, are Government monopolies, which are usually granted to persons in favour at court Trade in all other articles is free, subject to the payment of duties both on export and import. These duties differ greatly at different places, but the local tariff is always well known to the parties concerned, and is said to be not oppressively varied On the main route to Khatmandu, duties are levied according to an *ad valorem* percentage on certain articles But the more common system is to charge a certain sum by weight, by load, or by number, according to the character of the goods

The principal route for through traffic is that which runs through the British District of Champáran, with Khatmandu and Patná for its two points of terminus Starting from the military cantonment of Segauli, this route crosses the frontier near Ráksul, and then proceeds through Samrabasa, Hataura, Bhimphedi, and Thánkot to Khatmandu, the total length being about 92 miles Within British territory there is a good fair weather road, which was much improved as a relief work during the scarcity of 1873–74, and still more recently Segauli has been put into railway communication with the rest of India Beyond

the frontier it degenerates into a mere cart-track. As far as Bhimphedi (67 miles), light carts can occasionally be taken; but as a matter of fact, the greater part of the traffic is conveyed to Bhimphedi on pack-bullocks and ponies, and by coolies. Beyond Bhimphedi, coolies are the only means of carriage available. Though a portion of the road is there fit for driving, there is hardly a cart to be found in the whole valley of Khatmandu. What has been said of this route applies to the other means of communication with Nepál. There is scarcely a made road in the country, but carts and pack-bullocks from British territory freely pass to and fro during the dry season. The rivers are only used for floating down timber.

The principal articles of export from Nepál are the following:—Rice and inferior grains, oil-seeds, *ghí* or clarified butter, ponies, cattle, falcons for hawking, *mainás* as cage-birds, timber, opium, musk, *chireta*, borax, madder, turpentine, catechu or cutch, jute, hides, and furs, dried ginger, cardamoms, red chillies, turmeric, and *chauris* or yak-tails. The chief imports are—raw cotton, cotton twist, and cotton piece-goods (both native and European), woollen cloth, shawls, rugs, flannel, silk, brocade, embroidery, sugar, spices, indigo, tobacco, areca-nut, vermilion, lac, oils, salt, a little fine rice, buffaloes, sheep and goats, sheet copper, copper and brass ornaments, beads, mirrors, precious stones, guns and gunpowder for sporting purposes, tea from Kumáun and Dárjíling. Of the aggregate value of this trade, it is difficult to form even an approximate estimate. Elaborate statistics have recently been compiled on the frontiers of Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and Oudh; but with a trade that passes by so many channels, and consists in many cases of articles of small bulk and high value, registration necessarily omits much.

The following figures afford some indication of the general character of the transactions. The balance of trade, which is always much in favour of Nepál, is adjusted by the importation of silver into that country. This silver is for the most part hoarded. In the year 1877–78, the total imports into Nepál from Bengal were valued at £455,000, the chief items being—European piece-goods, £153,000; Indian piece-goods, £19,000; salt, £32,000; cattle, £52,000; sugar, £16,000; raw cotton, £7000; brass and copper, £22,000. The total exports into Bengal were valued at £703,000, chiefly consisting of food-grains, oil-seeds, cattle, and timber. By weight, the total exports of rice and paddy amounted to nearly 35,000 tons, and of oil-seeds to nearly 13,000 tons. The piece-goods imported were almost entirely registered in Champáran District.

The corresponding statistics for 1882–83 are as follows:—Value of total imports into Nepál from Bengal, £555,752, the chief items being—European piece-goods, £181,959; Indian piece-goods, £17,805;

salt, £34,164, cattle, £14,115, sugar, £23,113, raw cotton, £13,861, brass and copper, £49,292 The total exports into Bengal for 1882–83 were valued at £787,219, chiefly cattle (£45,895), rice (£156,196), paddy (£85,326), hides and skins (£30,000), *ghi* (£30,000), linseed (£63,844), and timber (£97,185) Manufactured silk goods were imported from Bengal in the same year to the value of £11,286, in the previous year to the value of £5255, and in 1880–81, £5594 The total traffic in tobacco between Nepal and Bengal was 2,500,000 lbs in respect of weight The timber trade is carried on mostly through Champaran, other routes are through Mirzapur in Darbhanga, and Mirganj in Purniah The value of the woollens sent to Nepal from Bengal was £33,642 in 1882–83

In 1877–78, the total imports into Nepal from the North Western Provinces and Oudh were valued at £176,000, chiefly piece goods, salt, metals, and sugar The total exports into the North Western Provinces and Oudh were in that year valued at £352,000, including food-grains to the aggregate weight of nearly 22,000 tons The corresponding figures for 1882–83 are as follows —Total imports into Nepal from the North Western Provinces, £256,682, total exports from Nepal into the North Western Provinces, £576,610 The addition of the figures for Bengal gives a grand total of £1,686,000 for the registered trade of Nepál both ways in 1877–78, and of £2,176,263 for the same trade in 1882–83 The gain to British traders engaged in the traffic between the North Western Provinces and Nepál is officially estimated at £100,000 yearly.

Coinage and Currency —The current silver coin in Nepál is the *mohar*, two of which go to the Mohri rupee The intrinsic value of the *mohar* is 6 *ánnas* 8 *pies* of British Indian currency. The Mohri rupee is not an actual coin, but merely a matter of account, its minor denominations being as follows —4 *dams* = 1 *pice*, 4 *pice* = 1 *ánna*, 16 *annas* = 1 Mohri rupee. Three different kinds of copper *pice* are coined, all of which circulate in British territory Along the tract from Bahráich to Champáran, the current coin of exchange is the *Bhutwaliya* or *Gorakhpuri pice*, a square lump of purified copper, roughly cut by hand, with an apology for a stamp, 75 of these coins go to the Indian rupee, *i e* they stand to the Indian *pice* as 75 to 72; but they are so popular with the people, that traders cannot pass Indian *pice* into Nepal, except at the rate of 9 *pice* for 2 *ánnas*, or a discount of 1 in 8 These *Bhutwaliya pice* are made at Tansen, in the Pálpa District of Nepal In the extreme east and north east, the common coin is the black or *Lohiya pice*, of which 107 go to the Indian rupee These are of no better shape or manufacture than the *Bhutwaliya pice*, and they are of less value, owing to the large admixture of iron. There are several mints for their production in the eastern hills, the best known being that of

Khika Maccha. They are commonly met with in North Behar, from Champáran to Purniah.

In the valley of Khatmandu, the thin or new *pice*, introduced in 1865, have now nearly driven the *Lohija pice* out of circulation. They are circular, made by machinery, and fairly well stamped. Their value is 117 to the Indian rupee. According to a report by Mr. Girdlestone, the British Resident at the Court of Nepál, the average annual out-turn of all the Nepálese mints during the four years ending 1875–76 was as follows, in terms of Mohri rupees:—Silver *mohars*, Rs. 214,000; *Bhútwaliya pice*, Rs. 186,000; *Lohiya pice*, Rs. 43,000; new *pice*, Rs. 123,000. The coinage of silver used formerly to be much larger than it is now; but the Indian rupee has gradually expelled the native *mohar* from the entire south of the country. Indian currency notes are in slight demand along the border. In Khatmandu they are highly prized as a means of remittance, usually fetching a premium varying from 3 to 5 per cent. Formerly the bills of the great trading firm of Dharm Náráyan were bought up at higher prices even than currency notes. This firm acts as State bankers, and has corresponding houses at Patná, Benares, Cawnpur, and Calcutta. It suspended payment in 1873, but has since been re-established.

Manufactures.—The Newars are almost the only artisans in Nepál. The Newar women, as well as the men of the hill tribe of Magars, weave two sorts of cotton cloth, partly for home use and partly for exportation. Those who are not very poor wear woollen blankets, which are manufactured by the Bhutias, who wear little else. The dress of the higher ranks is not manufactured at home, but is imported; it consists of Chinese silks and European muslins, calicoes, velvet, and broadcloth. The Newars are workers in iron, copper, brass, and bell-metal; the chief seats of the latter industry being Pátan and Bhatgáon. One bell manufactured at this last place measured 5 feet in diameter. The Tibet bells are superior to those of Nepál, though a great many bell-metal vessels of Nepál manufacture are exported to Tibet, along with those of brass and copper. The Newars have also a knowledge of carpentry; but it is remarkable that they rarely use a saw, dividing their wood, when of any size, by a chisel and mallet. They manufacture from the bark of a shrub (*daphne*) a very strong paper, remarkably well suited for packages. They distil spirits from rice and other grains, and also prepare a fermented liquor from wheat, *mahuá*, rice, etc., which they call *rukshí*. It is made somewhat in the manner of malt liquor, but is more intoxicating.

History.—The early history of Nepál, like that of most eastern countries, is buried under a mass of fable. The inhabitants exhibit a list of princes for several thousand years back, which is given in Colonel Kirkpatrick's work, but without any evidence of its authenticity. We

…on, however, that Nepál was the scene of important revolutions, …ough it was never subjugated by the Delhi Emperors, or by any of …e other great Asiatic conquerors. It is said to have been completely …bdued in 1323 A.D., by Hari Singh, one of the princes of Oudh, who …ad been driven out of his own possessions by the Pathans. But from …at period there exists no accurate information respecting the dynasties …hich ruled during the interval, or the race of princes who governed Nepal at the time of the Gurkhali conquest. Ranjit Mall, king of Bhatgaon, was the last of the Surya bansi race, or Children of the Sun, that reigned in Nepál. In order to strengthen himself against his rival at Khatmandu, he formed an alliance with Prithwi Narayan, which ended in the loss of his dominions, of which he was stript by his ally in the Newar year 888, corresponding to 1768 A.D. The conquest of Patan, in the following year, made the Gurkhas masters of the whole valley. It was during this struggle that Captain Kinloch, with a British force, endeavoured to penetrate into Nepal. But from the sickness of the troops, and the difficult nature of the country, the enterprise was abandoned.

Prithwi Narayan died about three years after the final conquest of Nepal, in the year 1771. He left two sons, Singh Pratáp and Bahádur Shah. The former of these succeeded to the throne, and conceiving a jealousy of his brother, threw him into prison, whence he was with difficulty released by the interference of one of the spiritual guides of the Gurkha royal family, on condition that he should live in exile. Singh Pratap, after having extended his father's conquests, died in 1775, leaving one son, Ran Bahádur Shah, who was an infant. Bahadur Sháh, on the death of his brother returned from his exile to Khatmandu, and having placed his nephew on the throne, assumed the office of regent. But the mother of the infant prince, Rájendra Lakshmi, contrived to supplant Bahadur Shah in the regency, and to secure the person of her rival. Through the mediation, however, of one of the priests, matters were arranged, and Bahadur Sháh was enabled to seize and confine the Rani in his turn. Neglecting, however, to conciliate the chief men of the State, he was again driven into banishment, from which he did not return till the death of the princess, when he reassumed the regency without opposition. In the course of his administration, the dominions of Nepál were extended to the Mechi river on the east, and Garhwal District on the west, and from the border of Tibet to the border of Hindustan.

Towards the close of the administration of Warren Hastings, the Gurkhali sovereigns were involved in difficulties with Tibet, which were followed by a reference to China. The Teshu Lama of Tibet proceeded to Pekin, and died soon after his arrival in that city. His brother, Sumhur Lama, taking advantage of his absence, fled from

widow, who, notwithstanding all his attention, and rich offerings at the different temples, soon afterwards expired In his affliction he became quite frantic and perpetrated atrocities the bare mention of which still causes the Nepálese to shudder Amongst various enormities, he directed the sacred temple of Bhawani to be demolished and the golden idol which was a venerated object of worship, to be ground to dust, and when the soldiers to whom he had issued the orders demurred at such an act of sacrilege he commanded boiling oil to be poured on their naked bodies None were exempt from his rage Even the chief members of the Government were scourged without mercy and otherwise tortured A conspiracy was at last formed against the tyrant who finding himself abandoned, fled during the night, and ultimately reached Benares in May 1800

The presence of the Raja on British territory seemed to afford a good opportunity for bringing about that closer connection with Nepál which had long been the aim of the Government of India A treaty of alliance was accordingly concluded by Captain W D Knox, who was appointed as British ambassador and proceeded to Khatmandu in that capacity in 1802 The terms of the treaty were favourable to British interests the Nepalese being anxious to secure the influence of such powerful neighbours against the faction of the abdicated Rája who still contended for his restoration But whatever advantages were attained by this treaty were ultimately rendered nugatory by the jealous opposition of the subordinate officers amongst the Nepalese, who were probably instigated by their chiefs, the latter being entirely unable to fulfil the obligations into which they had entered

The Residency at Khatmandu was withdrawn in 1804 About this time the abdicated monarch Ran Bahadur Sháh, by the able management of his queen, whom he had always ill treated was restored to his former authority But as he continued to rule with his former barbarity, his reign was of short duration In 1805 a second conspiracy was formed against him and he was assassinated His death was succeeded by the most violent conflicts between the rival parties in the State, which did not terminate until nearly the whole of the nobles of Khatmandu had perished. The surviving adherents of the late Raja having at length secured the person of his son, seized the reins of government, putting to death such of the opposite party as remained.

During all these intestine commotions, it is [illegible] Gúrkhas still continued to extend their conquests [illegible] the west of Khatmandu, they found the hill chiefs [illegible] jealousies, and by no means in a condition to form a [illegible] defence The Gurkha armies very soon [illegible] without the aid of artillery, of every hill fort, [illegible]

peace was concluded on the 28th November 1815 But the signature of the Rájá being withheld, it was determined to renew the war, and to strike a decisive blow directly at the capital of the country Preparations for this arduous enterprise were made on a great scale, a force being assembled in Saran numbering about 13,000 troops, of whom 3000 were Europeans, besides a large body of irregulars, amounting in all to over 33,000 men This formidable force took the field in the end of January 1816, and advanced from Bettia directly on Khatmandu The greatest difficulties were encountered, from the ruggedness of the country, in marching along the dry beds of torrents, through ravines, and in the face of precipices The Gurkhas made a brave resistance, but they were defeated in several severe encounters, and the British force approached within three days march of Khatmandu Deeming all further resistance vain, an ambassador was sent to the British head quarters, to sue for peace, and on March 4th, 1816, the unratified treaty of the year 1815 was accordingly received duly signed By this treaty the Nepálese renounced all claims to the territory in dispute They also ceded all the conquests they had made to the west of the Kálí And these, with the exception of Kumáun, the Dehra Dun, and some other portions of territory annexed to the British dominions, were restored to the families of the chiefs who had reigned there prior to the Gúrkha invasion, and who were now to rule as vassals of the British.

In the course of this contest, the Nepalese had earnestly entreated the aid of the Chinese Their application being transmitted by the Grand Lama to Pekin, an answer was received, in which the Emperor of China expressed his conviction that the Gúrkhas had themselves been the cause of the war by their unjust encroachments, and declined all interference After peace was concluded with the British, the Chinese Emperor expressed deep offence against the rulers of Nepál, who, being merely tributaries, had presumed to make war or peace with the British, without the sanction of their superior, and to back those lofty pretensions a Chinese army of 15,000 men, commanded by five generals, and attended by functionaries of superior rank, usually stationed at Lhása, advanced towards the Nepálese territories At the request of the Nepál ministers, the British consented to act as mediators But in the mean time they themselves despatched agents to the Chinese camp, who succeeded in bringing about the restoration of the previous relations between the two powers.

In 1816, Amar Singh Thappa, one of the Gurkha commanders who had so gallantly disputed the field with Sir David Ochterlony, died at the age of sixty-eight To the last day of his life he was endeavouring, by every art of negotiation, to excite amongst the different States a spirit of hostility against the British, as the common

enemies of Indian independence. In November 1816, the young Rájá, the successor of his father Ran Bahádur Sháh, died of small-pox, at the age of twenty-one years. One of his queens, and one of his concubines, together with five female attendants, burned themselves on the funeral pile along with the corpse. He left one son, three years of age, named Rájendra Bikram Sháh, who succeeded quietly to the throne, under the guardianship of the minister Bhím Singh Thappa.

From this time the internal history of Nepál presents little that can excite interest. The late Prime Minister, Jang Bahádur, who died in 1877, was well known in England, and received the honours of a Grand Cross of the Bath and a Grand Commandership of the Star of India. He was the nephew of a man who had raised himself to a high position in the administration of affairs. He murdered his uncle at the instigation of the queen: a new ministry was formed, and Jang Bahadur was appointed to the command of the army. Shortly afterwards, the new premier was assassinated, and the queen, with whom he was a favourite, demanded vengeance. Jang Bahádur undertook the task, and executed it with alacrity. An assembly of chiefs and nobles being convened (1846) within the palace, Jang Bahádur, backed by a small force on which he could depend, suddenly appeared among them, and did the work of massacre. Fourteen of the hostile chiefs fell by the hand of the commander-in-chief. Before

the dawn of the su y, Jang Bahádur was invested with the
office of Prime Mi nspiracy was formed for his destruction;
but Jang seized ar ll the a of the chief conspirator.
The queen was her sons; and, the king
g accompan heir- endra Bikrám Sháh,
ised to the ble on afterwards made
monarch t don rgy of Jang Bahádur
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Bahádur a fri wards the British;
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time previously distrusted by the nobles of the State and by the people, and the change of Government was quietly acquiesced in by all classes One result which the revolution is likely to produce is a thorough reform both in the internal administration and in the foreign policy of Nepál The self isolation which has hitherto closed the country to European travellers will possibly be abandoned

Ner—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat. 20° 56 N and long 74° 34 E. on the southern or right bank of the Pánjhra river, 18 miles west of Dhulia Population (1881) 2658 Ner was formerly an important Muhammadan town and Muhammadan tombs still line the main road leading into it Post office and engineer s bungalow

Ner (*Parsopant*)—Town in Wun District Berar situated north of Darwa, and about 18 miles to the north west of Yeotmál in lat 20° 29 N, and long 77° 55 E. Noted for its dyers who here carry on a thriving trade Weekly market police station, registrar s office and school Population (1881) 3875 houses 861

Nerbudda.—Division of the Central Provinces—*See* NARBADA

Nerbudda.—One of the great rivers of India—*See* NARBADA

Neri (*Nîri*)—Town in Warora *tahsil* Chándá District, Central Provinces, situated in lat. 20° 28 N and long 79° 29 E 5 miles east south east of Chimur The inhabitants are chiefly Maráthás Population (1881) 3364 namely Hindus 3117 Muhammadans 126, non Hindu aborigines, 121 Neri consists of an old and a new town, with an extensive stretch of rice land between There are manufactures of brass and copper utensils and cotton cloth for export and a considerable trade is carried on in grain, groceries and salt. The old town contains two ruined forts, and an ancient temple with pillars and carvings like those of the cave temples at Ajantá. Some graceful Panchál tombs, in which husband and wife lie side by side, are of later date

Neriad.—Town in Kaira District, Bombay Presidency—*See* NARIAD

Nerla—Town in Walwá Sub division, Satára District, Bombay Presidency, situated 44 miles south by east of Sátara town, in lat. 17° 6 N, and long 74° 15 E. Population (1881) 6807, namely, Hindus, 6605, Muhammadans, 142, and Jains, 60 Post-office, travellers' bungalow, vernacular school and market

Ner Pinglai—Town in Amráoti District Berar Population (1881) 6644 namely, Hindus 5896, Musalmans, 600, and Jains, 148

Nerúr (*Nerrur*)—Town in Karur *táluk*, Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency Lat 11° 0 15″ N, long 78° 11 40″ E. Population (1881) 5610, number of houses, 1288 Hindus number 5467, Christians, 118, and Muhammadans, 25

forms the boundary of the Sub-division on the north One village belonging to the Nizám lies south of the river, thus breaking the continuous boundary for three miles It is the rule to plough heavy lands every year The garden lands are generally manured, but not the dry-crop lands of the plain, though sheep are occasionally penned on them The lands do not appear to be allowed a fallow A system of crop changes is observed, but there is not a sufficient variety of crops to admit of a good rotation The area under *rabi* or late crops is double that under *kharif* or early crops The area of irrigated land is small During the seven years ending 1881, an annual average area of 157 acres was irrigated Of 193,254 acres, the actual area under cultivation in 1881–82, grain crops occupied 165,203 acres (70,891 acres were under *bájrá*), pulses occupied 15,883 acres, oil seeds, 3245 acres, fibres, 7380 acres (7279 acres were under cotton), and miscellaneous crops, 1543 acres Land revenue (1882), £18,146 The Sub-division in 1883 contained 3 civil and 3 criminal courts, police circle (*thána*), 1, regular police, 38 men, village watch (*chaukidars*), 205

Newása—Head quarter town of Newása Sub division, Ahmadnagar District, Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 19° 34 N, long 75° E, 35 miles north east of Ahmadnagar town Population (1881) 3804 Beside the Sub-divisional and police offices, Newása has a sub judge s court, dispensary, and weekly market on Sundays In 1290, Dnyáneswar, the great Maráthá poet, wrote his commentary on the Bhagwadgitá at Newasa, which he calls Nivás

Neyatankarai—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Travancore State, Madras Presidency Area, 213 square miles, villages or collections of villages, *karas*, 151 Population (1875) 106,128, (1881) 110,410, namely, 55,318 males and 55,092 females, occupying 24,072 houses. Hindus number 89,464, Muhammadans, 5237, and Christians, 15 709

Nga pí-seip—Village in Kan aung township, Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma, situated on the right bank of the Irawadi Population under 300

Nga pú taw—Township occupying the extreme south western portion of Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It is divided into two very dissimilar tracts by the Arakan Yoma range The south eastern one consists of a large island (33 miles long by 7 broad) lying in the Bassein river, and intersected by numerous inter communicating tidal creeks Off the Bassein mouth is Diamond Island, farther out to sea is the ALGUADA reef Towards the north the country is flat and covered with forest, whilst in the extreme north the surface is dotted with small sandstone hills. West of the Arakan range, nowhere more than 16 miles from the sea, the whole country is mountainous, the spurs extending by gradual slopes to the sandy beach,

and forming, as at Cape Negrais, rugged and sea-washed escarpments. In a few places are small rice plains; but as a rule such cultivation as exists is on the hillsides. The Arakan Yomas attain no great elevation in this township. Two principal passes cross the range. The chief rivers are the MYIT-TA-YA and the THAN-DWE. Large vessels can enter the latter and pass up about 6 miles. Nga-pú-taw comprises 11 revenue circles. Population (1876-77) 20,037; (1881) 23,346. Gross revenue (1876-77), £8013; (1881), £11,022.

Nga-pú-taw.—Head-quarters of Nga-pú-taw township, Bassein District, Lower Burma; situated on Nga-pú-taw island in the Bassein river, 21 miles below Bassein town. Population (1881) 928.

Nga-thaing-chaung (or *Nga-thaing-khyaung*).—Head-quarters of the Nga-thaing-chaung Sub-division of Bassein District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; situated on the Bassein river, in a rice-producing tract. Contains a court-house and the usual public buildings. Population (1881) 3557; revenue (1881-82), £1144.

Nga-won.—River in Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* BASSEIN.

Niamti.—Village in Shimogá District, Mysore State.—*See* NYAMTI.

Nibárí.—Village in the Gáro Hills District, Assam; situated on the Jinári or eastern source of the Jingirám river, where it debouches upon the plains of Goálpárá. The *bázár* is a centre of trade where the Gáros exchange their hill products for rice, cloth, dried fish, etc. The *duár* or lowland tract of the same name contains valuable *sál* timber, yielding revenue to Government; and an area of 10 square miles was proclaimed a Government reserve in June 1883 under the name of the Jinári Forest Reserve.

Nibrang.—Pass in Bashahr (Bussahir) State, Punjab, over the range which bounds Kunáwar to the south; lies in lat. 31° 22′ N., and long. 78° 13′ E., between two perpendicular rocks, 35 feet in height, and bears a striking resemblance to a gateway. Elevation above sea-level, 16,035 feet.

Nichlaval.—Village in Mahárájganj *tahsíl*, Gorakhpur District, North-Western Provinces; situated at the meeting of several unmetalled roads and cross country tracks, 51 miles north-north-east of Gorakhpur town. Although the population is not returned in the Census Report, Nichlaval is a large and important village, and the principal mart in the north of Gorakhpur District, from whence a large export of rice, both locally grown and from Nepál, takes place. The village contains a third-class police station, and District post-office. A few miles distant are the ruins of a castle or fort, the scene of a sharp fight during the Nepálese campaign.

Nicobars.—A cluster of islands lying to the south of the Andamans, in the Bay of Bengal, between lat. 6° 40′ and 9° 20′ N., and long. 93° and 94° E. The area of the whole archipelago

amounts approximately to 426 square miles, and the population to about 6000 persons This group consists of 8 large and 12 small islands, of which the following are the principal — Chauri, Terressa, Bompoka, Tillangchong, Camorta, Nancowry, Katchall, Car Nicobar, the Little Nicobar, and the Great Nicobar The largest of these is the Great Nicobar, which is about 30 miles in length, and between 12 and 15 in breadth The length of the others is as follows —Car Nicobar, 6 miles, Terressa 12 miles, Katchall, 9 miles, Nancowry, 4 miles, Camorta, 16 miles and the Little Nicobar, 12 miles. Nancowry gives its name to a splendid harbour, which is formed by the islands of Nancowry, Camorta, and a smaller one called Trinkatt. Many of the channels which separate the islands form excellent and safe passages for ships The station established by the Government of India in 1869 in this group of islands, is called Nancowry It is situated at the south east end of Camorta Island and on the north side of Nancowry harbour The station is supervised by an officer, who is periodically relieved from Port Blair The establishment, in 1882, consisted of 50 native troops 27 police, and 235 convicts, the object of the settlement being the protection of trade and suppression of piracy Nancowry is the only station among the islands of the Nicobar group

Physical Aspects.—Most of the islands are hilly, and some of the peaks attain a considerable height. Others again are flat, and covered with forests of cocoa nut trees. All of them are well wooded In some of the islands, particularly Camorta and Nancowry, the forests alternate with extensive undulating plains covered with a long coarse grass, which in places afford excellent pasture for cattle. The valleys and sides of the hills, to a considerable height, are so thickly covered with trees that the light of the sun is never able to penetrate through their foliage Among the principal trees are the cocoa nut and areca palms, the mango, the *larum* or *mellori*, and a variety of timber tree which grows to an immense height, and would afford excellent material for building and repairing ships. Tropical fruits grow in great abundance, and yams of fine quality and size The domestic animals are dogs, pigs, and a few fowls. Of birds, the Nicobar swallow is the chief It is the builder of the edible nests, so highly valued by the Chinese All kinds of fish abound in the waters around the islands, and shell fish are found in great quantities The soil on the sea shore is composed of sand, coral, lime, and vegetable mould, more or less thick, the hills are red clay, and the rocks lime, sand stone, and slate Specimens of coal have been found in various parts of the Nicobars, and though differing in appearance are alike in nature. The circumstance of their similarity is an indication of the probable existence of one great bed extending through the islands.

Population.—It is difficult to determine the origin of the Nicobarians. In some features they resemble the Malays, yet the shape of their eyes is so different, and their manners and customs so peculiar, that they must be considered as a separate race. They are of a copper colour, well proportioned in their bodies, short rather than tall, with Chinese eyes, small flat noses, large mouths, thick lips, large ears, scanty beard, and straight black hair. Their villages are generally built upon the beach, and consist of fifteen or twenty houses, each house containing a family of twenty persons and upwards. These habitations are raised upon wooden pillars about 10 feet from the ground; they are round, and, having no windows, look like bee-hives covered with thatch. The entry is by a trap-door below, through which the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night.

Fishing forms the chief occupation of the Nicobarians. Their food consists of pigs, poultry, turtle, fish, cocoa-nuts, yams, fruits, and a bread made from the fruit of the *mellori* tree. In character they are lazy, cowardly, treacherous, and drunken. They have committed repeated murders on the crews of vessels under the British flag. In several instances the natives received the crew hospitably, and when the sailors were partaking of refreshment they suddenly rushed upon them and killed them before they had time to act in defence. There now seems little doubt that many vessels supposed to have been lost in the Bay of Bengal were in fact cut off and plundered by the natives of these islands. Since the British occupation of the Nicobars, however, there have been no cases of piracy, and the islanders, generally speaking, have behaved well.

They have no written language, and the dialects spoken differ so much that the inhabitants of one island can scarcely make themselves understood in another. Like other savage nations, the Nicobarians dread evil genius, and are much addicted to superstition. They entertain highest opinion of such as can read and write, and believe that all Europeans, by this qualification, are able to perform acts more than human.

The Nicobarians have a great reverence for their dead. Although they do not possess a clear conception of immortality, they suppose that the soul of the dead stays for a time in the neighbourhood in which it lived. Burials are conducted with great solemnity, and over each body a post is erected, on which are placed the utensils daily used by the deceased. The Nicobarians hold in dishonour simultaneous polygamy. They never keep more than one wife, but have no scruple in dismissing her on the slightest pretext, and taking another. A perfect equality subsists among them all. A few persons, from their age, receive a certain measure of respect, but there is no appearance of authority one over another. Society seems bound

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Population.—It is difficult to determine the origin of the Nico In some features they resemble the Malays, yet the shape of th is so different, and their manners and customs so peculiar, th must be considered as a separate race. They are of a copper well proportioned in their bodies, short rather than tall Chinese eyes, small flat noses, large mouths, thick lips, larg scanty beard, and straight black hair. Their villages are ge built upon the beach, and consist of fifteen or twenty house house containing a family of twenty persons and upwards. habitations are raised upon wooden pillars about 10 feet fro ground; they are round, and, having no windows, look like be covered with thatch. The entry is by a trap-door below, t which the family mount by a ladder, which is drawn up at night.

Fishing forms the chief occupation of the Nicobarians. Thei consists of pigs, poultry, turtle, fish, cocoa-nuts, yams, fruits, bread made from the fruit of the *mellori* tree. In characte are lazy, cowardly, treacherous, and drunken. They have mitted repeated murders on the crews of vessels under the flag. In several instances the natives received the crew hosp and when the sailors were partaking of refreshment they suc rushed upon them and killed them before they had time to defence. There now seems little doubt that many vessels suppo have been lost in the Bay of Bengal were in fact cut off and plur by the natives of these islands. Since the British occupation Nicobars, however, there have been no cases of piracy, and the isla generally speaking, have behaved well.

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Agriculture is quite unknown on the Nicobars. The soil is nowhe cultivated, though many valleys might be rendered fertile with a litt trouble. A few plantains, sweet limes, yams, and other vegetable for local consumption are, however, raised. At Nancowry sufficient fruit and vegetables are grown for local wants, and experiments have been made in the cultivation of cotton and other tropical produce. At present the principal product of these islands is the cocoa nut palm, and its ripe nuts form the chief export. Edible birds nests tortoise shell, ambergris, and *trepang* (the sea slug), are also shipped. The northern islands are said to yield annually ten million cocoa nuts, of which about one half are exported. The estimated number exported in 1881–82 was 4,570,000. As this important product is six times cheaper here than on the coast of Bengal or in the Straits of Malacca, the number of English and Malay vessels that come to the Nicobars for cocoa nuts is every year increasing. In barter, they give black, blue, and red cloths, handkerchiefs, cutlasses, Burmese *dáos*, spoons, spirits, tobacco, red woollen caps, old clothes, and black hats. The trade in cocoa nuts is carried on chiefly by native craft from Burma, the Straits Settlements, Ceylon, etc. Forty vessels, of an aggregate tonnage of 6276 tons, visited the islands for cocoa nuts in 1881–82. The nuts are still obtained by barter. The importation of arms, ammunition, and spirits is prohibited.

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1881, the whole group of islands was declared a settlement for the purposes of the above regulation.

Climate.—The dense jungles, which impede every current of free air, and extensive marshes, render the climate of the Nicobars very unhealthy. The prevailing disease is malarious fever, which has proved fatal to many of the colonists who tried to effect a settlement on the island. The rainy months mark the predominant season of the year; even the driest months, from December to March, are not without rain. The heaviest rains occur in May, June, and July, and the south-west wind is then very strong, and frequently rises to a storm. The annual rainfall at Nancowry for the nine years ending 1881, was 104·6 inches. In 1881 the rainfall was 124·05 inches.

Nidadaúl (*Niddadavole*).—Town in Tanuku *táluk*, Godávari District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 16° 54′ 28″ N., and long. 81° 42′ 41″ E.; 63 miles north-east by north of Masulipatam, and about 10 miles south-west from Rájmahendri (Rájámundry), on the Ellore Canal, connecting the Godávari and Kistna rivers. The fort was built under the orders of Ibráhím Sháh of Golconda about 1550 A.D. Population (1881) 3256, inhabiting 579 houses. Hindus number 2978, and Muhammadans 278.

Nidhauli.—Village in Etah *tahsíl*, Etah District, North-Western Provinces. Population (1881) 3673. Remains of a fort built by Khushál Singh, the *amil* or revenue officer of the Nawáb of Farukhábád. Brisk trade in grain, indigo seed, and cotton. Police station, post-office, village school. A small house-tax is levied for police and conservancy purposes.

Nidugal (lit. '*Long or high stone*').—Fortified hill in Chitaldrúg District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 9′ 22″ N., long. 77° 7′ 31″ E.; 3780 feet above sea-level. The residence of a line of *pálegárs*, whose founder is said to have lived in the 16th century. They maintained a qualified independence until swept away by Tipú Sultán in 1792. The village of Nidugal on the north side of the hill has a population (1881) of 450.

Nighásan.—*Tahsíl* or Sub-division of Kheri District, Oudh; situated between 27° 41′ and 28° 42′ N. lat., and between 80° 21′ 15″ and 81° 23′ E. long. Bounded on the north by the independent State of Nepál, on the east by Nánpárá *tahsíl*, on the south by Biswán and Sitápur *tahsíls*, and on the west by Lakhimpur *tahsíl*. The largest but the most thinly populated *tahsíl* in the District. Area, according to the last Revenue Survey Report (1875–78), 936 square miles, or 599,126 acres, of which 270,663 acres are returned as under cultivation, 233,669 acres as cultivable, and 94,794 acres as uncultivable waste. Population (1869) 235,496; (1881) 268,306, namely, males 143,838, and females 124,468. Total increase of population since 1869, 32,810, or 13·8 per cent. in thirteen years

to the south and near the town of Nigohán, but to the north-west it is bare, and covered by wide barren plains. The soil along the Sái is light and sandy, and also along the banks of the Bánk stream, which crosses the *parganá* obliquely from the north, and joins the Sái to the south of Nigohán. This sandy land amounts to 20 per cent. of the cultivated area, and injuriously affects the general fertility. Except round the large villages, and in the south-west of the *parganá*, the cultivation is not so high as in the rest of the District. Area, 72 square miles, of which 39 are under cultivation. Population (1881) 32,331, namely, males 16,487, and females 15,844. Government land revenue, £4754, equal to an incidence of 3s. 9d. per acre on the cultivated area, 2s. 4½d. per acre on the assessed area, or 2s. per acre on the total area —a lower rate than in any other *parganá* of Lucknow. The tenure is principally *tálukdárí;* out of 77 villages comprising the *parganá*, 38 belong to *tálukdárs*, forming three estates. The only town with a population exceeding 2000 is SISSAINDI, but 7 others contain over 1000 inhabitants. Schools are maintained in five villages. The *parganá* is traversed by three roads—one running from Rái Bareli to Lucknow, another from Sissáindi to Mohanlálganj, while a third connects Nigohán and Sissáindi with Lucknow through Bijnaur (Bijnor) on one side, and with Lucknow and Sultánpur through Nagrám on the other.

Nigohán.—Town in Lucknow District, Oudh, and head-quarters of Nigohán *parganá;* situated 23 miles from Lucknow city, on the road to Rái Bareli. Population (1881) 1968, inhabiting 365 houses. Bráhmans are numerous, their principal means of subsistence being the large groves surrounding the village, which they have always held rent free. Market, and Government vernacular school.

Nigriting.—Village in Sibságar District, Assam; on the left or south bank of the Brahmaputra, about 16 miles north of the Sub-divisional town of Golághát. Nigriting is the principal garden of the Brahmaputra Tea Company. It is also the port for Golághát, and a stopping-place for steamers plying on the Brahmaputra, which here disembark coolies and stores for the tea-gardens, and take return cargoes of tea.

Nihálgarh Chak Jangla.—Town in Sultánpur District, Oudh; 36 miles west of Sultánpur town, on the road to Lucknow. Population (1881) 2016, namely, Hindus 1093, and Muhammadans 923. Three Hindu temples; police station; Government school.

Nihtor.—Town in Dhámpur *tahsíl*, Bijnaur (Bijnor) District, North-Western Provinces; situated in lat. 29° 19′ 30″ N., and long. ° ′ 35″ E., on the banks of the Gángan, upon the Dhámpur ro[illegible] from Bijnaur town. Population (1881) 9686, namely, M[illegible] 7001; Hindus, 2438; Jains, 242; and Christians, 8.

tains a handsome mosque, police station, post office, school, *sarái* or native inn Markets are held twice a week, and fairs in ... and July

Nijagal—Hill in Bangalore District Mysore State crowned ruined fortifications Lat. 13° 15 N, long 77° 15 20 E The sc... of much desperate fighting chronicled in local tradition The vill... at the base of the hill is now deserted

Nila Koh (*Blue Mountains*)—Range of mountains in the Dera... Division of the Punjab, separating Dera Ismail Khan from Bann... District, and culminating in the peak of Shaikh Budin in the latt... District (4516 feet) The range consists of two divisions—the Bhittan... range, which is a continuation of the Waziri hills upon the Bannu frontier, and the Shaikh Budin range which curves towards the north west and north from the extremity of the Bhittani hills towards the Indus, and strikes the Kuram river in Bannu a few miles above its debouchement The principal passes between Dera Ismail Khan and Bannu Districts are those of Lain and Pezu the former at the western and the latter at the eastern extremity of the Bhittani hills there are also several minor passes Shaikh Budin is much higher than the rest of the range, and is almost an isolated hill It is the sanitarium of the Deraját The Nila Koh hills are devoid of cultivation and are much broken up by ravines and precipice

Nilambur (or *Nelambur*)—Town in Palladam *táluk* Coimbatore District, Madras Presidency Lat 10 46 15 N long 77° 38 20 E Population (1871) 6811 in 1881 reduced to 3643 occupying 677 houses Hindus numbered 3608 Muhammadans, 22 and Christians, 13

Nilambur (or *Nelimbur*)—Town (or more correctly a group of hamlets) in Ernád *táluk* Malabar District Madras Presidency Lat 11° 17 N, long 76° 15 45″ E Population (1881) 11 384 namely, 5980 males and 5404 females occupying 1500 houses Hindus numbered 8921, Muhammadans 2444 and Christians 19 Noteworthy for its splendid teak plantations belonging to Government

Nilapalli (*Nellepally*)—Town in Godavari District Madras Presidency Lat 16° 44 N, long 82° 13 E close to the French settlement of Yanaon, and one of the English factories founded in 1751 by an Anglo French agreement Five miles south of Coringa Population (1881) 3678, number of houses 771 The factory was continued (although it was agreed that the fortifications should be removed) by the Treaty of Pondicherri (1754)

Nileswaram (*Nilkanta Ishwaram* also spelt *Nilisseram*)—Town in Kassergode *táluk*, South Kanara District, Madras Presidency Lat. ...° 15′ N, long 75° 9′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 8505, dwelling in ...06 houses Hindus numbered 7175, Muhammadans, 1322, and

Christians, 8. Residence of pensioned Rájás. The southernmost town of Kánara, and, according to Wilks, the old limit of Kerála.

Nilgiri Hills ('*Blue Mountains*').—District and range of mountains, Madras Presidency. The District of the Nilgiris until recently consisted exclusively of a mountain plateau, lying at an average elevation of 6500 feet, with an area of about 725 square miles. In 1873 the District was increased by the addition of the Ochterlony Valley section of S.E. Wainád. In 1877, the parishes (*amsams*) of Nambalakod, Cheramkod, and Mananád, in the Wainád *táluk* of Malabar, at an average elevation of 3000 feet, were added to the District, which now may be said to lie between 11° 12' and 11° 37' N. lat., and 76° 18' and 77° 5' E. long. The Nílgiri Hills District, with the exception of Madras City, is the smallest in the Madras Presidency. Its extreme length from north to south is 36 miles; its width from east to west, 48 miles. Area, 957 square miles. Population (1881) 91,034. Bounded on the north by Mysore (Maisúr) State; on the east and south-east by Coimbatore District; on the south by portions of Malabar and Coimbatore; and on the west by Malabar. The administrative head-quarters are at UTAKAMAND.

Jurisdiction.—The Nilgiri Hills formed part of the District of Coimbatore till 1831, when the greater portion was transferred to Malabar. In 1843 they were re-transferred to the jurisdiction of the Collector of Coimbatore, of which District they formed a Sub-division till 1st August 1868, when they were constituted a separate District, and placed under a Commissioner, who, in addition to his revenue functions as Collector, was invested with the powers of a Civil and Sessions Judge. Under him was an Assistant, who had the powers of a District Magistrate, Judge of Small Causes, and District *munsif*. There were two Joint Magistrates, one at Utakamand (Ootacamund) and one at Wellington. The latter was abolished in 1879. On February 1st, 1882, radical changes, necessitated by the rapidly increasing importance and development of the District, took place. The Commissioner became Collector, District Magistrate, and additional Sessions Judge; the District and Sessions Judge of Coimbatore becoming also Judge in the Nílgiris. The Assistant Commissioner was made Head-Assistant Collector and Magistrate, and a sub-Judge and a treasury deputy Collector were added to the upper staff, while the subordinate establishment was materially strengthened. A deputy *tahsíldár* was further added at Utakamand to the two already existing at Coonoor and Gúdalúr, the joint-magistracy of Utakamand being abolished.

Utakamand was a 'military *bázár*' under a Commandant till 1840. It then became a civil station; it is now the administrative head-quarters of the Nílgiri District, and the summer capital of the Government of Madras. The Nílgiri District contains 5 Sub-divisions

of the Nílgiri mountains rests upon the elevated land of Wainád and Mysore. These last-named tracts stand between 2000 and 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and thus form, as it were, a step by which the main descent towards the sea is broken.

From the Wainád and Mysore plateaux, the Nílgiris are separated by a broad extensive valley through which the Moyár river 'flows after descending from the hills by a fall at Neddiwattam in the north-west angle of the plateau. The isolation of this mountain territory would be complete, but for a singular sharp and precipitous ridge of granite peaks, which projects from the base of a remarkable cone called Yerramalái on the western crest of the range, and, taking a west by north course towards the coast, unites itself with the range popularly called the Western Gháts' (Ochterlony). In the south-west angle of the Nílgiris are the Kúnda hills; and spurs from this range run southward to a considerable distance. The Ochterlony valley and the recently added *amsams* of South-east Wainád lie 3000 feet lower, and consist of a series of broken valleys, once forest-clad throughout, but now studded with coffee-gardens.

The highest peaks are—Dodabetta, 8760 feet; Kudiakod, 8502 feet; Bevoibetta, 8488 feet; Makurti, 8402 feet; Dávarsolabett, 8380 feet; Kúnda, 8353 feet; Kúndamoge, 7816 feet; Utakamand, 7361 feet; Támbrabetta, 7292 feet; Hokabbetta, 7267 feet; Urbetta, 6915 feet; Kodanád, 6815 feet; Devabetta, 6571 feet; Kotágiri, 6571 feet; Kundabetta, 6555 feet; Dimhatti, 6315 feet; Coonoor (Kúnúr), 5882 feet; Rangaswámi Peak, opposite the Gazzalhatti Pass, 5937 feet above sea-level.

There are six well-known passes or *gháts* by which the District communicates with the neighbouring Provinces, viz. the Coonoor, Segúr, Gúdalúr, Sispárá, Kotágiri, and Sundapatti. The first three and the fifth are practicable for wheeled traffic. The Coonoor *ghát* is the principal approach; and the road is of easy gradient and well made. The Kotágiri *ghát* has been much improved as to gradient, and ranks next to Coonoor and Gúdalúr in point of importance. The Segúr and Gúdalúr *gháts* give access to Mysore and Wainád. The Sispárá or Kúnúr *ghát* is now abandoned, owing to the 'opening of a new road from Utakamand to Neddiwattam, and thence a new *ghát* which joins the Government imperial roads at Gúdalúr running down the Karkúr *ghát* at Nelambúr and Mámbat' (Ochterlony).

The only rivers in these hills are the MOYAR, which rises at the foot of the Nílgiri peak and flows into the Bhavání river near Danayakankotta in Coimbatore; the PAIKARA, which, after taking a northerly course, discharges itself into the Moyár (distance from Makurti peak to the falls, about 10 miles); and the BEYPUR. Near the travellers'

bungalow, the Paikára is about 40 yards wide during dry weather, an contains a succession of deep pools divided by shallows, in which a large boulders of rock. The bed, which is gravelly on the fords, i generally covered by a fine red sand with which the water appears im pregnated. The Beypur flows into the sea near Calicut town. 'The head of this stream is formed by the drainage of the elevated tabular mass of hills, which occurs to the north-west at Neddiwattam; and though it descends the face of the hills at no great distance from the fall of the Moyár, the intervention of a sharp spur diverts its course into an exactly opposite direction, forcing it over the ridge called the Karkur or Yerramalái Hills, to find its way to its embouchure on the western coast' (Ochterlony). Some of the main feeders of the Bhávani river, which joins the Moyar below Mettapolliem, take their rise in the Kundanánad.

The only lake of note is that at Utakamand (7220 feet above the level of the sea), which is nearly 2 miles long. It is formed by an artificial embankment, thrown across the western outlet of the valley, by which the waters of the Dodabetta streams are dammed up. This lake is one of the distinctive features of the station, and round its banks is the favourite drive. Similar lakes might no doubt be formed in many other valleys. There are no indigenous fish on the plateau, except minnows. Tench, carp, and trout are, however, being acclimatized. In the Wainád, the *mahsir* or Indian salmon is found in the upper waters of the Moyár and Beypur.

The plateau is chiefly grass land studded with *sholas* or small woods. On the Kundas, these *sholas* increase in extent; and on the lower slopes, the forests become dense with fine timber trees, such as *sal* (Shorea robusta), *kino* (Pterocarpus Marsupium), jack (Artocarpus integrifolia), blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), teak (Tectona grandis). The forest area in the Wainád portion of the District is about 150 square miles; on the higher ground, Eucalypti and the Australian wattle have been largely planted. The forest revenue was formerly about £7500; in 1882-83 it was about £5000.

The sholás on the plateau are evergreen; and the tints of the young eaves which come out at different seasons, but chiefly in spring, are ery remarkable and beautiful. Each species has its own shade of een and its particular season when the young foliage comes out. It difficult to say which is the most common or most characteristic tree these *sholas*, and, indeed, their composition varies greatly with vation. It will be convenient to begin with one of the most widely ised trees, Michelia nilagirica, the *tila champa* of the hills, locally wn as *shempangan*, which gradually covers itself with large white rs in July, and continues the chief ornament of the *sholás* until ber. At other times of the year, this tree is remarkable for the

scarlet seeds with which the ground under the tree is strewn. The foliage of the Michelia is of a light green colour, and contrasts with the dark green of most other species. Three kinds of Eugenia form a striking contrast with the Michelia, with their dense dark green foliage, composed of masses of thick leathery aromatic leaves. Eugenia montana, with large broad leaves, the shoots sharply quadrangular; Eugenia calophyllifolia, with small stiff blunt leaves, making a flattish dense crown; and Eugenia Arnottiana, with larger pointed leaves and an abundance of white blossoms which come out early in spring. Other species with dark green foliage are Ilex Wightiana, with red berries, Ilex denticulata and Ilex Gardeniana, large trees belonging to the same genus as the English holly. Several species of Elœocarpus, with large handsome leaves, which turn bright red before falling, and most elegant flowers, arranged in long branches, the petals white or pink and deeply cut. The fruit of these resembles the olive, and is eaten. Sideroxylon elengioides, a large tree with small white blossoms similar in structure to, but much smaller than, the *mahuá* of Central India, to the natural order of which it belongs. The fruit is made into a pickle, and is eaten with curries. Meliosma pungens, with large ribbed leaves and upright panicles of small white blossoms which are an ornament to the hills in spring, and which again come out into flower after the rains. Cinnamomum zeylanicum, which botanists identify as the same species as the Ceylon shrub, the bark of which is the cinnamon of commerce, with shining leaves, easily distinguished by their aromatic scent, and three prominent veins running from base to apex. The cinnamon belongs to the same natural order as the true laurel, and there are numerous trees of the same order in the *sholás*, all easily known by more or less aromatic leaves. One of them, Litsæa zeylanica, is distinguished by its pale bluish-green leaves.

Two trees of the same order to which the Camellia and the Tea belong, remarkable for their handsome flowers, are the Gordonia obtusa, which adorns the *sholás* near Kúnúr in the months of June and July with its white flowers. In the centre of each flower is a mass of golden yellow antlers, resembling the flower of the tea bush. The other is the Ternstromia japonica, with smooth shining leaves and elegant yellow flowers. A third tree of the same order is the Eurya japonica, with clusters of small white flowers in the axils of the leaves, a handsome tree widely distributed over Eastern Asia, extending as far as the Fiji Islands. Euonymus crenulatus, a fine tree with dark brick-red blossoms closely allied to the English spindle tree, and with its capsules similarly shaped, is another of the *sholá* trees near Utakamand.

Outside the existing forests, isolated trees are often found in ravines, or near villages where they have been protected, the remains

of former *sholás.* These trees are generally Elœocarpus, the fruit of which, like a plum, is eaten, while the tuberculated stones of other species of the same genus are strung up for necklaces, known as *rudrak* (Elœocarpus Ganitrus, *Roxb.*) all over India, or they belong to a genus not yet mentioned (Celtis), a deciduous tree, of which one species, the *rhask* of the North-west Himálayas, is important on account of its furnishing fodder for cattle. One of the commonest trees of the North-west Himálayas, the Rhododendron arboreum, is abundant on the Nilgiris above an elevation of 5000 feet. It is found outside the *sholas,* often associated with the red myrtle (Rhodomyrtus tomentosa), also called the Nilgiri gooseberry, the fruit being eaten, and being in appearance somewhat like a gooseberry. At lower elevations, for instance near Kunúr, the rhododendron is associated with Vaccinium Leschenaultii, which bears bunches of dark purple edible berries in summer, following after a great show of pale rose-coloured blossoms. The tree belongs to the same genus as the English whortle-berry.

The shrubs and herbs of the *sholas* are as varied as the trees. On the edge of the forests, where there is plenty of light, there are generally masses of Leucas lancifolia, with heads of white woolly flowers. In the dark shade of the *sholas* the underwood consists of the small bamboo and large shrubs of Strobilanthes, which, like the bamboo, flowers only after periods of from five to fifteen years, and after flowering dies down. On rocks and among brushwood in ravines is the charming and sweet-scented Nilgiri lily (Lilium nilagiricum), with long white flowers, containing an abundance of honey. Grassy slopes are covered with a small Strobilanthes, with hard stiff leaves and masses of blue flowers, which it is said have given these hills the name of the Blue Mountains. On grassy slopes above 7000 feet, the Anaphalis nilagirica is common and often gregarious over considerable areas. It is a small shrub with twisted stems, long masses of grey tufted foliage, from which stand out numerous slender stalks bearing clusters of woolly yellowish-white flowers. One of the most characteristic herbs of the plateau is Lobelia excelsa, with thick erect stems, carrying large tufts of long narrow hairy leaves, and in spring thick cylindrical spikes of pale blue flowers.

Among a great variety of shrubs, the species of brambles frequently occur. Rubus moluccanus, with round soft leaves, has pink flowers and no fruit. Rubus ellipticus, with ternate leaves and round leaflets, has white flowers and yellow berries; while Rubus lasiocarpus, with white stems and pinnate leaves, has pink flowers and black hairy berries. The first is a widely-spread species found throughout Bengal, Assam, Burma, and the Indian Archipelago; the two others are common in the North-west Himálayas.

Large game, especially tiger, bear, *sámbhar,* and ibex were once very

plentiful on the plateau, but constant and too often unsportsmanlike shooting has reduced the number sadly. Leopards, hyenas, wild hog, porcupines, jungle sheep, and hares are still found in fair abundance, as also woodcock, snipe, spur-fowl, jungle-fowl, and pea-fowl. A close season has been established by law (1879) for the preservation of deer and other useful species of game.

Population.—The first enumeration of the District was made in 1848, when the population was returned at 17,057, distributed over 420 square miles, giving a proportion of 40 per square mile. According to the Census of 1871, the inhabitants numbered 49,501. The number of hill tribes, exclusive of the Kurumbas, was, in 1848, 7674; in 1866, inclusive of the Kurumbas, 19,891; and in 1871, 23,364.

The most recent Census, that of February 1881, disclosed a total population of 91,034, of whom 50,976 were males and 40,058 females. These figures include a Wainád population of 25,440. The area is 957 square miles; number of towns 2, and of villages 8; occupied houses, 17,844; unoccupied, 3746. These figures show a density of 95 persons to the square mile, 19 occupied houses to the square mile, and 5·1 persons to each house. The general population has increased since 1871 by 41,533. The Census returned as under 15 years of age, 16,474 boys and 15,379 girls; total children, 31,853, or nearly 35 per cent. of the population: and as 15 years and over, 34,502 males and 24,679 females; total adults, 59,181, or over 65 per cent.

Classified according to religion, there were 78,970 Hindus, 3551 Muhammadans, 8488 Christians, 34 Pársís, 6 returned as Theists, and 5 'others.' Distributed into castes, the Hindus are thus subdivided:—Bráhmans, 440: Kshattriyas, 107: Shetties (traders), 2827; Vellálars (agriculturists), 10,588: Idaiyars (shepherds), 3463; Kammálars (artisans), 1760: Kannakkans (writers), 153: Kaikalars (weavers), 419; Vanniyans (labourers), 2609: Kusavans (potters), 587; Sátánis (mixed castes), 849; Shembadavans (fishermen), 291: Shánáns (toddy-drawers), 165: Ambattans (barbers), 247: Vannáns (washermen), 547; Pariahs (outcastes), 20,397: 'others,' 33,721. The Muhammadans are sub-divided into 21 Arabs, 198 Labbays, 140 Máppilas, 9 Mughals, 151 Patháns, 39 Sayyids, 375 Shaikhs, and 2618 'others.' Of the whole Muhammadan population, 2186 are Sunnis. Among the Christians, 852 are British-born subjects, 395 other British subjects, 451 other Europeans or Americans, 1012 Eurasians, 5462 natives, and 316 'others.' According to another principle of classification, there were 5111 Roman Catholics, 967 Protestants, and 2410 others of various denominations.

As regards occupation, the Census divides the male population into six main groups, as follows:—(1) Professional class, including State, civil, and military officials of every kind, 1305, or 1·43 of the whole;

(2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers, 1738, or 1 91 cent.; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, 1177, or 1 3 per cent, (4) agricultural and pastoral cl including gardeners, 22,031, or 23 5 per cent., (5) industrial cl including all manufacturers and artisans, 3613, or 3 97 per cent, a (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising all male childre general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupations, 21,112, 23 19 per cent

The languages spoken are English, Kánarese (with its dialects, Tod Kota, and Badaga), and Tamil The number of the Hindu populatio returned as 'others' (42½ per cent) are all aboriginal tribes belonging to the Nilgiris Of their number (33,582) Badagas are returned at 24,130 Irulars, 946, Kotas, 1065, and Todas, 675 The increase noticeable in the decade since 1871 is mostly due to immigration, the coffee and other plantations of the District attracting large numbers of coolies from the neighbouring Districts of Malabar (1416) and Coimbatore (7524), and from the Native State of Mysore (21,234) and although the majority return at the end of the season a small proportion remain Of the total population of 91,034, the Census returned 51 351, or 56 41 per cent., as people born in the District, while elsewhere in the Madras Presidency were found 1189 Nilgiri people That is to say, 2 26 per cent. of those born in Nilgiris had migrated The balance of emigrants and immigrants left a gain of 38,494 The emigrants had gone almost exclusively to the neighbouring Districts of Malabár (108) and Coimbatore (475) The principal towns are—UTAKAMAND (Ootacamund), population (1881) 12,335, including Lovedale, COONOOR (Kúnur), population 4778 WELLINGTON can tonment, population 1725 The local districts (*nad*) are PARANGANAD, population 18,116, TODANAD, 11,557, MEKANAD, 12,740 The large majority of villages do not contain above a few hundred inhabitants each, and even these are groups of scattered hamlets rather than villages. Utakamand and Coonoor are municipalities.

Hill Tribes—Five hill tribes are found on the Nílgiris—the Todas, Badagas, Kotas, Kurumbas, and Irulas, the first three being peculiar to this range The most interesting of all these tribes are the Todas, who are described by Ochterlony as 'tall, well proportioned, and athletic.' 'Their bold, independent carriage,' he continues, 'and finely moulded and sinewy limbs attest that they are sprung from no effeminate eastern race, while the aquiline nose, receding forehead, and rounded profile, combined with their black bushy beards and eyebrows, give them a decidedly Jewish aspect Their dress is as peculiar as their habits and appearance, consisting of a single cloth, a sort of toga, which they wear after a fashion well calculated to set off to advantage their muscular forms, being disposed about the person like the plaid of a

Scotch Highlander. The costume of the women is much the same as that of the men, the toga or mantle being wrapped around them so as to cover the entire person from shoulder to ankle. In habits the Todas are very dirty and indolent. They practise polyandry, a woman marrying all the brothers of a family. Females number about 3 to every 5 males. Their sole occupation is cattle-herding and dairy work. Their food consists of milk, curds, *ghi*, and different millets and cereals.'

Their language seems a mixture of Tamil and Kánarese, and is classed by Dr. Caldwell as a separate language of the Dravidian family, lying between Old Kánarese and Tamil. Dr. Oppert finds in it a closer affinity to Telugu. The Todas worship, besides their dairy buffaloes, several deities, of which the principal are Hiriadeva or the 'belly-god,' and the 'hunting-god.' They believe that after death the soul goes to *Oru norr* or *Am-norr*, 'the great or other country.'

The Toda hamlets or villages are called *mands* or *molts*, and are thus described by Dr. Shortt 'Each *mand* usually comprises about five buildings or huts, three of which are used as dwellings, one as a dairy, and the other for sheltering the calves at night. These huts are of a peculiar oval pent-shaped construction, usually 10 feet high, 18 feet long, and 9 feet broad. The entrance or doorway is 32 inches in height and 18 in width, and is closed by means of a solid slab of wood from 4 to 6 inches thick. This is inside the hut, and slides on two stout stakes. There are no other openings or outlets of any kind. The houses are neat in appearance, and are built of bamboo closely laid together, fastened with rattan, and thatched. Each building has end walls of solid wood, and the sides are covered in by the pent roofing, which slopes down to the ground. The interior of a hut is from 8 to 15 feet square. On one side there is a raised platform or *pial* formed of clay, about 2 feet high, covered with deer or buffalo skins, or sometimes with a mat. This is used as a sleeping-place. On the opposite side is a fire place and a slight elevation on which the cooking utensils are placed. Outside, an enclosure of loose stones is piled up 2 or 3 feet high. The dairy, which is also the temple of the *mand*, is slightly larger, and contains two apartments separated by planking; one part is a store-house for *ghi*, milk, and curds.' In 1867 the number of *mands* was 106, with a population of 704. In 1871 the total number of the Todas was returned at only 693,—405 men and 288 women; and in 1881, at 675, of whom 382 were males and 293 females.

The Badagas or Vadagas (from *Badaku* or *Vadaku*, meaning 'north') are supposed to have come from the north, in consequence of famine and persecution, about 300 years ago, after the dismemberment of the Vijayanagar kingdom. They constitute the most numerous, wealthy, and civilised of the indigenous tribes, and are described by Dr. Shortt as being also the fairest of all. The men, he says, clothe themselves much

like the natives of the plains with head and waist cloths, a sheet being used as a wrapper to cover the shoulders and body The women wear a white cloth fastened by a cord under the arms leaving bare the arms and shoulders, and the legs below the knees The hair is thrown back and knotted loosely on the nape of the neck The Badagas are partial to ornaments, and wear rings, bracelets armlets necklets and ear and nose rings of brass iron or silver They pay a tribute called *gudu* to the Todas Their chief diet consists of *korali* and *sámi* two innutritious cereals Their language is an old Kánarese dialect In religion they are Hindus, their principal deity being Rangaswámi whose temple is situated on the summit of Rangaswami peak the easternmost point of the Nílgiris they also worship many inferior divinities male and female In 1871 they numbered 19 476 souls and in 1881 24 130

The Kotas (properly Gauhatars from the Sanskrit *gau* a cow,' and *hatr*, 'slaying *i e* cow killers) are according to Shortt 'well made and of tolerable height, rather good featured and light skinned with shapely heads and long loose hair elongated faces with sharply defined features, the forehead narrow but prominent the ears flat and lying close to the skull The women are of moderate height of fair build, and not nearly so good looking as the men Most of them have prominent foreheads snub noses and a vacant expression The Kotas practise agriculture and various handicrafts and are good carriers they perform menial offices for the Todas and Badagas and like the latter, pay a *gudu* to the Todas They worship ideal gods which are not represented by any image Their language is an old and rude dialect of the Kánarese but without the guttural or pectoral sound peculiar to the Todas ' The Kotas have about 7 villages altogether Six of these are located on the hills, and the seventh is at Gudalur Each village contains from 30 to 60 or more huts of tolerable size built of mud walls, and covered with the usual thatch grass somewhat after the style of native huts in the plains The arrangement of the dwellings is far from neat The floors are raised from 2 to 3 feet with a short verandah in front and a *pial* or seat on either side of the door In 1871 the Kotas numbered 1112, and in 1881 1065

The Kurumbas (' shepherds), the most uncivilised of the five tribes, are described by Shortt as 'small in stature, squalid and uncouth in appearance, with wild matted hair and almost nude bodies They are sickly looking, pot bellied, large mouthed prognathous, with prominent outstanding teeth and thick lips The women have much the same features as the men, slightly modified with a small pug nose and surly aspect They wear merely a piece of cloth, extending from under the arms to the knee, but some have only a waist cloth Both men and women wear ornaments of iron, brass, various seeds, shells, and glass beads as ear rings, necklets, armlets, bracelets, rings, etc

'Their villages are termed *mutta*, and are generally located at an elevation of 2000 or 3000 feet, in mountain clefts, glens, or forests. A Kurumba house is one long apartment, extending from 30 to 50 feet in length, scarcely 5 feet high, loosely and scantily thatched, walled around by brushwood or bamboo plaitings, and divided by the same into several apartments, each not exceeding 8 or 10 feet square. There is neither door nor door-frame, but the huts are shut at nights by placing plaitings of bamboo or brushwood against the opening. Their language is a corrupt Tamil. The various grains, chillies, Indian corn, yams, and some of the commonest vegetables are grown by them in small quantities; but, as a rule, they do not cultivate. They have a very vague form of religious belief, but they worship many natural objects. Those Kurumbas, who live on the hills, officiate as priests to the Badagas. They are a superstitious race; and while they keep all the other tribes of these hills in awe, they themselves fear the Todas.' Besides cultivating on a small scale, they collect in the jungles several kinds of grain, fruits, soap-nuts, myrobalans, dye-barks, shed deer-horns, mouse-deer, squirrels, tortoises, fish, medicinal herbs, roots, honey, and beeswax, which they barter on the plains for grain and cloth. A gang of them are employed on the Government cinchona plantations at Neddiwattam, and some few have been met with in the coffee estates near Kotágiri and Gúdalúr. The Kurumbas on the Nilgiri Hills numbered 613 in 1871, and 3185 in 1881.

The Irulas (or 'benighted ones,' from the Tamil word *iral*, 'darkness') live on the lowest slopes and forests extending from the base of the Nilgiris to the plains, and are not, strictly speaking, inhabitants of the hills, nor are they recognised as such by the other tribes. 'They are tolerably good-looking, very much superior in physique to the Kurumbas, and in some respects even to the Kotas. The women are strong and stoutly built, anything but prepossessing in appearance, and very dark skinned. The men wear no clothing but a *languti* or waistband in their own homes; but when working on the plantations, they wear cloths like other natives. The women wear a double fold of wrapper cloth, which extends from the waist to the knees; the upper part of their bodies with their bosoms, are nude. They are fond of ornaments, and wear strings of red and white beads about their necks, thin wire bracelets and armlets, with ear and nose rings.' They are an idle and dissolute tribe, although in physique well adapted to hard manual labour. They use animal food of every description, and are expert huntsmen. Their language is a rough Tamil, with many Kánarese and Malayálam words. The Irulas on the Nilgiri Hills numbered 1400 in 1871, and 946 in 1881.

With the exception of the Irulas and Kurumbas, who, owing to their

careless and wandering life, are always poor, the hill tribes are in very comfortable circumstances The Badagas who are an industrious cultivating people, are rapidly becoming wealthy as the improved character of their houses and extended holdings testify

Agriculture—The crops grown on the Nilgiris include wheat, barley, and other cereals, peas, beans, potatoes garlic onions mustard castor oil seeds, etc Two and sometimes three crops of potatoes can be taken off the soil in the course of a year and the cultivation of this root is now growing into much importance but is not free from the anxieties peculiar to potato-growing elsewhere The area under potatoes in 1882–83 was 801 acres Besides potatoes peas turnips cabbages cauliflower, beetroot, celery, parsnips artichokes and nearly every variety of English vegetable grow well Of fruits the grape plum Brazil cherry, raspberry, apple, peach, pear, and orange are grown In some farms and gardens, managed by Europeans oats lucerne and clover have been cultivated successfully Dairy farms are worked profitably, but a small industry in silk that once promised well is now all but abandoned.

Special Crops—The commercially important products of the Nilgiris are coffee, tea, and cinchona

Coffee cultivation was introduced on these hills about 1844 having already been established in the Wainad and in Coorg The number of coffee plantations in 1875 was 126 in 1877, 213 in 1880, 354 in 1881, 375, and in 1883 459 Of the 459 estates 359 are in the Nilgiris proper, 24 in the Ochterlony valley, and 76 in South east Wainád These are exclusive of several hundreds of small native clearings The estates contained in 1883, 35,128 acres of coffee land, of which 22,897 were already planted, and 19 786 acres were in full bearing The cost of cultivation per acre under coffee was from £10 to £13 in 1881, from £6, 12s. to £8 in 1882, from £6, 6s to £15, 12s in 1883 The average yield per acre was 426 lbs in 1881 350 lbs in 1882 and 358 lbs in 1883 These figures refer to mature plants The approximate coffee yield of the Nilgiri plantations was 10,015,619 lbs in 1881, 6,003,778 lbs in 1882, and 7 085 391 lbs. in 1883 Their present value (1883) may be estimated at over a million sterling, and the annual out turn averages about 4000 tons of coffee, which at present prices would yield about £300,000 They give employment to 10,000 or 12,000 labourers There are about 150 European coffee planters and estate superintendents in the District. Besides these, many estates are owned by natives of India

Tea Cultivation—Three varieties of the tea plant are cultivated,—the China, the indigenous plant of the Assam and Manipur valleys, and the hybrid. The hybrid is the most useful variety It combines a great deal of the hardiness of the China plant with the vigo

growth, size, softness of leaf, and great productiveness of the indigenous. It seldom bears sufficient seed to hinder its out-turn of leaf, and yields more than twice as much leaf as the China plant. It is also possessed of a more vigorous constitution than the indigenous plant of Assam, and is less liable to disease.

The impression that the tea-plant succeeds best in a cold climate is erroneous. Tea-plants do not grow freely or mature their seed so well at a high elevation as they do lower down; and the plant raised from seed so grown shares to some extent the weakness of the parent plant. In the western half of the Nílgiris the plantations are, as a rule, situated at high elevations. Their growth and yield are curtailed by the cold damp winds of the south-west monsoon, and by the sharp dry winds and nightly frost of the cold season. The severity of the climate there checks the plants to such an extent that bushes five years old show less vigorous growth and constitution than plants of half of that age grown at the same elevation on the eastern slope of the hills. The lands best suited to successful cultivation of the tea-plant lie along the southern and eastern slopes. One of the safest tests of the suitability of a plot of land for tea cultivation is a luxuriant growth of the common bracken fern (Pteris aquilina), as it indicates sufficient moisture and richness of soil, with good drainage. In regard to the lay of the land, the less the slope the better; flat lands possessing good drainage and not subject to frosts, are the most suitable.

The first operation performed is the clearing of the natural growth on the land to be opened out. It is necessary in forest lands to leave belts from 20 to 30 yards wide on all exposed ridges; or on the more open lands, to plant belts of quick-growing trees (Eucalyptus, etc.); to check the violence of the monsoon gales. Steep slopes are terraced; and drained at intervals to break the force of the heavy rainfall.

The spots chosen for the reception of the plants are then marked out with pegs or slips of bamboos. Cylindrical pits of 18 inches in width and depth are dug at a regular distance apart, generally 4 feet by 4. When the holes have been exposed to the air for a short time, and the monsoon rains have set in, they are refilled, care being taken that only the best soil is returned and that it is free from roots, weeds, stones, etc. The soil is heaped to some height in the centre.

Planting is effected in either of the two following ways—(1) planting the seed *in situ*, and (2) transplanting seedlings from nurseries. *In situ* planting is performed by sowing three or four tea seeds, germinated or fresh, in each pit, and subsequently thinning them, when 2 or 3 inches high, leaving the strongest grower in the pit. Those removed serve to fill up vacancies, or are planted in a nursery for use during the following season. A practice now coming into favour consists of raising germinated seed in small baskets of split bamboos, and afterwards

transferring them to the pits they are meant to occupy The outer covering of bamboo soon rots and allows free passage to the lateral roots

The year after planting so soon as the spring showers set in the young plants commence to shoot freely Until they have attained a height of from 18 to 24 inches they are left alone but when the centre and main lateral shoots show an undue tendency to upward growth they are cut back As far as possible the plants should be trained to a single stem for at least 6 inches above ground A slight surface trimming about the middle of the south west monsoon followed by a somewhat severer one at the end of the north east rains will probably be found sufficient during the second year A couple of months or so after this second trimming a crowd of young succulent shoots spring up all over the surface of each plant and when these have attained a fair length say from 6 to 8 inches the upper leaves are picked The greatest care must be taken to allow the lateral branches to grow unchecked From 2½ to 3 feet is about the best height at which to maintain the surface level of the plants at pruning This allows from 1 to 1½ feet of upward growth during the course of the picking season

About July the plants are old enough to undergo their first systematic pruning The best time for pruning is from early in June to the middle of August and it is generally about this season that the seed crop of the preceding year has matured and that of the coming season has found its flower buds Excepting at very low elevations, hard pruning is not advisable The growth at the higher elevations is not sufficiently strong to enable the plants to stand it Severe pruning once in three or four years is sufficient, and in old estates should be accompanied by forking and manuring wherever practicable

The first tea garden on the Nilgiri [illegible] was opened in 1851 The number was 38 in 1875 53 in 1877, 79 in 1880, 76 in 1881 and (exclusive of some small gardens [illegible] into larger plantations) 77 in 1882 Area under [illegible] tea [illegible], 3724 acres in 1882 under immature plants 1556 acres, total, [illegible] acres compared with 2372 acres in 1875 Area taken up for tea [illegible] but not yet planted, 4273 acres in 1882 The [illegible] was 220,070 lbs of tea in 1875, and [illegible] in 1882, [illegible] yield per acre of mature plants 1[illegible]5 [illegible] in 1875, and 224 in 1882

There are now (1883) 78 tea estates [illegible] 11,764 acres of which [illegible] acres are planted, and 2322 [illegible] value of these estates may be [illegible] the approximate [illegible] 1883, [illegible]

lbs.; the cost of cultivation, £4, 10s. to £17, 10s. per acre; the cost of manufacture per lb. was 2¼d. to 6d. An experiment has recently been made of tea-growing on grass lands. It is too early to predict the result, but if it is even moderately successful, the tea-gardens of the Nílgiris may be developed almost indefinitely. About 4500 hands are employed on the several tea estates in the District.

Cinchona Cultivation.—The Madras Government commenced the experimental cultivation of cinchona on the Nilgiris in 1860. The plant was specially introduced from South America by Mr. Clements Markham. A wooded ravine above the Government gardens on the Dodabetta range, at an elevation of between 7600 and 7900 feet, was selected as suitable for the growth of such varieties as require high elevation. For species requiring a warmer and moister climate, a forest glen was chosen at Neddiwattam above Gúdalúr, on the north-western slope of the hills, at an elevation of about 6000 feet. In 1862, two other plantations were established on the wooded slopes on either side of the Paikára waterfall, having an elevation about the same as that of Neddiwattam. These plantations are known as the Wood and Hooker estates, the former being named in honour of the then Secretary of State for India, and the latter after the celebrated botanist and Director of Kew Gardens. Towards the end of 1863, a fifth plantation was opened out near Melkunda, about 9 miles south of Avalanchi bungalow, at an elevation of between 6000 and 7000 feet; but this estate was abandoned in 1871 by order of Government.

The four existing Government cinchona plantations, namely, the Dodabetta, Neddiwattam, Wood, and Hooker estates, occupied an area of 2610 acres in 1883-84, and contained a total of 1,315,444 trees. The total cost to Government up to March 1883 amounted to £255,850, and the total receipts had amounted to £340,486, showing a surplus of £84,636. The amount of bark collected in 1882-83 was 135,016 lbs., and in 1883-84, 186,652 lbs. The receipts in 1881-82 were £52,484, but fell to £20,842 in 1882-83, owing to a destructive monsoon period. Half of the crop collected, sale of seeds, etc. sold in 1883-84 realized £8013, while the cost of maintenance and other expenses amounted to £9418. This success shows that the undertaking has passed out of the region of experiment; and already private enterprise has followed in the steps of Government, and there are now 4 or 5 private cinchona-gardens planted out.

With regard to the cultivation of the cinchona plant, seed from plantations where natural facilities for hybridization exist, is to be preferred. The growth of hybrids is generally stronger, while they have a tendency towards a greater secretion of alkaloids. Hybrids of Condominea and Succirubra also partake in great measure the vigour and

strength of the true Succirubra, and yield bark whose richness in quinine alkaloids approximates to that of the bark of the best varieties of Candominea. The natural tendency of the Nilgiri cinchonas to produce strong and rich hybrids is the most promising feature of the cultivation The use of guano, sulphate of ammonia, and farm yard litter as manure, has resulted in greatly increasing the secretion of alkaloids, particularly in the case of the varieties known as Crown barks, in which the supply in some cases has been doubled

The ordinary process of gathering the bark is by stripping the tree, a process which is thus described by Mr M'Ivor, a former superintendent of the plantations —'A labourer proceeds to an eight year old tree, and, reaching up as far as he can, makes a horizontal incision of the required width From either end of this incision he runs a vertical incision to the ground, and then, carefully raising with his knife the bark at the horizontal incision until he can seize it with his fingers he strips off the bark to the ground and cuts it off The strip of bark then presents the appearance of a ribbon more or less long Supposing the tree to be of 28 inches in circumference, the labourer takes 9 ribbons each 1½ inches wide. As soon as he has removed the strips, he proceeds to moss the trunk all round, tying on the moss with some fibre The decorticated intervals are thus excluded from light and air This exclusion of light and air from a stem partially bared of bark, acts in two ways—(1) it enables a healing process to be rapidly set up , and (2) it increases the secretion of quinine in the bark renewed under its protection At the end of six or twelve months the bands of bark left untouched at the first stripping are removed, and the intervals they occupied on the trunk are mossed At the end of 22 months, on an average, the spaces occupied by the ribbons originally taken are found to be covered with renewed bark much thicker than the natural bark of the same age, and this renewed bark can be removed and a fresh process of renewal again fostered by moss In another six or twelve months, the renewed bark of the natural ribbons left at the first stripping can be taken, and so on Harvests are obtainable from the trunk, alternately from the spaces left at the first stripping and the spaces left by the second stripping Experience does not show any limit to the taking of these harvests from a tree Of course it is understood that at every stripping the ribbons taken are longer than at the preceding stripping because the tree each year increases in height and bulk, and therefore the top of every ribbon consists of natural bark and the lower part of renewed bark'

Another method of collecting the bark is that recently introduced by the Dutch in Java, namely by scraping or shaving off the outer layers of the bark, leaving the inner layer to protect the *cambium* The alleged advantages of this system are said to be—(1) that it involves the

removal of only the valuable portion of the bark; (2) that all such is removed; (3) that the bark is renewed in a shorter period; (4) that the health of the tree is not affected; and (5) that the protection of moss is not essential for renewal.

It is necessary that the bark should be dried in partial shade, as the action of sunlight and exposure to the heat of a fire dissipate the alkaloids. Sheds with shelves of bamboo laths, so as to admit of a free current of air, should be erected in convenient localities. When the bark is tolerably dry, it should be placed in a room artificially heated so as to evaporate the remaining moisture in it. The room may be heated by flues or charcoal fires, but the temperature should not be permitted to rise above 100° F. Green bark of tolerably mature age loses about two-thirds of its weight in the process of drying.

The best mode of packing the bark for shipment to Europe is in bags made of gunny cloth, consisting of two layers, with an intermediate coating of tar, which ensures the purpose of uniting the layers and effectually excluding moisture.

Ordinary Crops.—The total area of the District is estimated at 957 square miles—678 on the plateau, 39 in the Ochterlony valley, and 240 square miles in the Wainád addition. It is not accurately known how much of this area is actually under cultivation, as, owing to the different systems upon which land is granted, the Government accounts in one case show the area of estates without reference to the extent cultivated, and in other cases the area cultivated is the only figure recorded. The Census of 1881 returned 101 square miles as 'cultivated.' A regular survey of the District has now (1883) been completed, and a revenue settlement is in progress, which is all but completed, except as regards the South-east Wainád, where the operations have not yet commenced.

The Administration Report of Madras for 1882–83 returns the area actually cultivated in the Nílgiri Hills in that year at 70,153 acres. Of these, 19,851 acres are shown as under coffee, 5282 under tea, and 2522 under cinchona. Wheat occupies 6543 acres; rice, 2388 acres; *ragí*, 4104 acres; other cereals, 28,064 acres; pulses, 63 acres; potatoes, 801 acres; vegetables, 100 acres; onions, 194 acres; and mustard seed, 241 acres.

Wages are high. An ordinary unskilled labourer earns (1883) about 8 rupees (16s.) a month; skilled labourers, 12 to 15 rupees (24s. to 30s.); handicraftsmen, 25 to 35 rupees (£2, 10s. to £3, 10s.) when in full work. At particular seasons on the coffee and tea gardens, wages are very high, but the ordinary rate is 4 or 5 *ánnás* a day (6d. to 7½d.) for pickers. The ordinary weight for grain in the *bázár* is a *ser* of about a pound and a half, or half the usual Madras measure. The prices current per *maund* of 80 lbs. were in 1882–83 as follows:—Rice, 7s.; wheat, 9s. 6d.; *ragí*, 3s. 7d.; other cereals, 2s.; potatoes,

6s 4d , salt, 8s 3d , and sugar, £3 Coffee was 6½d and tea 1s. 10½d per lb Cinchona sold at 3s 1½d per lb The live stock of the District comprises—cows, 9526, bullocks, 8776 buffaloes 8640, horses, 985, ponies 527, donkeys, 226, sheep 948 goats, 972 pigs, 60 dead stock—ploughs 4057 and carts 485 A plough bullock costs £2 10s , and a sheep 6s 3d Carts can be hired for 1s a day

In early traditions of the country the evidence of the *gudu* or manorial fee paid to the Todas by the immigrant agricultural races who have settled in the country (a *gudu* paid even by Government, for the occupation of the European settlements on the hills) and the researches of the officers early connected with the administration of the District—all point to the fact that the nomadic race of Todas were the immemorial and acknowledged owners of the hill plateau, over every part of which they pastured and still pasture except where occupied, their large herds of buffaloes according to the season The English rule, however, found the cultivable valleys and hillsides on the east and south—the more genial tracts of the hills—more or less completely occupied by villages of immigrant races who carried on the rude cultivation of dry grains within their rural limits Much as was the case with hill tribes throughout Southern India wide areas were occupied and extensive fallows necessarily the rule These agricultural villages paid *gudu* to the Todas and a moderate village tribute for this cultivation to the State from time to time Conditions were not much altered save as respects punctuality of payment and more rigid assessment of extended cultivation during the first half century of English rule

A *rayatwari* settlement has since been gradually extended to the village landholders on the hills All land within each village held exclusively is entered in the individual *patta* or notice of demand, with its assigned assessment and must be relinquished unless paid for each year subject to sale in case of retention and final default

The Waste Land Rules were introduced in 1863 with the object of facilitating the acquisition of land for plantation purposes and the like The block of land selected by the applicant is, after three months advertisement, and after demarcation and survey, sold to the highest bidder, whoever he may be The assessment—8 *annas* (1s) per acre on grass, and 2 rupees (4s) on forest—is payable after three years in the Wainad, and five years on the plateau, when the land is taken up for the cultivation of special products, such as tea, coffee, and cinchona Such lands are redeemable in fee simple by a single payment of twenty five times the assessment, a privilege which does not extend to land occupied under the old rules and without auction The local Government, when sanctioning the introduction of a revenue settlement into the District in March 1881, directed the

temporary relaxation of the Waste Land Rules, so far as to allow planters and native cultivators to take up, during the currency of the settlement, waste lands adjoining their holdings, without auction or payment of price, but subject to an annual assessment of 2 rupees (4s.) per acre in the case of planters, and 10 *ánnás* (1s. 3d.) an acre in the case of native tribes. Under this rule, which was liberally interpreted, a considerable area of unappropriated Government waste land has been taken up.

The wide and immemorial pasture-grounds of the Toda race—practically the whole unappropriated area of the plateau and the hill slopes—have naturally remained unassessed to any land-tax, although largely occupied by cattle; some 25,000 or 30,000 head being now maintained on them. The natural pasture is exceptionally coarse and innutritious, and the climate of the western and northern tracts of the range, which are especially pastoral, is so ungenial as to close them partially against herds for several months of the year; and further, the area of unappropriated land has become seriously narrowed. Tipú Sultán is believed to have asserted a right to pasture the cattle belonging to the Mysore State on the hills; transit duties were levied on the *ghi*, in which the Todas traded with the lowlands; and a kind of *motarfa* tax has at times been levied on the cattle of this tribe, but no settlement or land-tax has been extended to these pastures. Since, however, a demand for land for European occupation has sprung up on the hills, these wide pasture lands have practically been declared Government waste, available for sale and appropriation by Government. However, to each *mand* or Toda hamlet is reserved a 50-acre block of pasture, with a proportion of forest for shade. On this, a rental of 2 *ánnás* (3d.) an acre is payable. This represents a reservation in all of some 7000 acres, so that to each adult male Toda there is an allowance of over 30 acres. Practically, the Todas graze their cattle over all waste land, but the reservation has been granted to compensate for the gradual enclosure of private estates. The Toda reserves, however, are intended exclusively for pasture, and all alienations are prohibited.

In the European settlements, a few building grants, made before 1863, are held on quit-rents redeemable on twenty years' purchase; but more recent grants are subject to the general conditions specified above, and are not allowed to exceed 10 acres in extent. Another tenure in the District is that of the *ináms* or glebes of village officers, the assessment on which used to be paid direct by the occupants to the village officers as their remuneration. These have now been amalgamated with the Government lands; the *pattidár* paying the revenue to Government direct, and the village officers receiving in lieu a money payment.

Transfers of land are frequent and easy Between natives, these are generally effected by the traditional form of conveyance, and intimated to the Settlement officer But the European practice of conveying by stamped and registered document is becoming popular The price of land, of course, varies very much according to class—good forest land in the Wainad and Ochterlony valley sometimes reaching £100 an acre, but £2 to £10 an acre is the average auction price for coffee land The price of land in the Settlement of Utakamand has of late risen very considerably owing to the increased demand for building sites.

Natural Calamities—No famine is ever known to have occurred within the Nilgiri District. But high prices in the plains affect prices here, and in 1877, serious distress was felt among the poorer classes, European as well as native

Means of Communication—The District notwithstanding the difficulties of construction and repair, is fairly supplied with roads, but much yet remains to be done in this respect before the country is fully opened for the introduction of European capital There are altogether more than 280 miles of road bridged and open for wheeled traffic, of which 180 are on or leading to the plateau and nearly 82 in South east Wainád. The principal Nilgiri lines are the Coonoor *ghat* road, and thence to Utakamand, 28 miles, Utakamand to Karkanhali for Mysore, 26, to Gúdalur, 30, Coonoor to Kotágiri, 12, Utakamand to Avalanchi, 14, Kotágiri *ghat* road, 20 Several other *gháts* and plateau roads are maintained for pack bullocks, but are not practicable by carts A railway from Kaliár, at the foot of the *ghat*, to Coonoor (Kunur) had been guaranteed by Government under certain conditions, and the prospectus of the Company had been published, but the promoters failed to raise the required capital on the terms sanctioned, and have made (1883–84) fresh proposals to Government.

Manufactures and Trade—There are no special manufactures in the District, except the weaving of a coarse cotton cloth by the Badagas. Several European industries exist, for local purposes solely, and there are two breweries The trade consists in the import and sale of European goods and food stuffs, and the export of tea, coffee, and cinchona, and some garden produce The principal market, locally called *shandy*, of the District is held at Utakamand every Tuesday At Coonoor a *shandy* is held on Sundays and Tuesdays, and at Kotágiri on Mondays The *Kadu* festival of the Todas, at which is performed the annual ceremony for the dead, which consists of dancing and slaughtering buffaloes, is held in different localities The Badagas and Kotas also have annual festivals, which are attended with dancing and music, sacrifices of sheep, buffaloes, etc.

Institutions—The Nilgiri Library at Utakamand and the Lawrence

and were found to contain bronze vessels, such as vases, urns, etc, domestic utensils, glazed pottery, and spear heads One theory attributes them to Scythian ancestors of the Todas, but against this is the fact that the Todas offer not the slightest objection to these remains being opened and their contents carried away Though they use them as burial places, they themselves attribute their origin to a race who lived anterior to them and sometimes to the Kurumbas Dr Shortt writes 'It is generally believed by the natives that these cairns and cromlechs are the work of the followers of the Pandian kings who at one time ruled on the Nilgiris The Badagas likewise believe this, while some of them attribute them to the Kurumbas The Rev Mr Metz is also of the latter opinion and I am inclined to coincide with this gentleman We know that the Kurumbas were at one time scattered all over Southern India and were driven by their conquerors to the jungles and hills they at present occupy Dr Caldwell perhaps rightly calls them 'Scytho Druidical remains as they appear to partake both of the Scythian and Druidical in structure etc Similar remains are found in most Madras Districts and indeed in many other parts of India.' There are traditions on the Nilgiri Hills of an old race of Veddas apparently the same as the Veddas of Ceylon

Forests —The forests of the Nilgiri Hills are of four classes—(1) Those of the eastern and southern slopes (2) the northern slopes and Moyár valley, (3) the South east Wainad (4) the *sholis* of the plateau In the first are found deciduous forest with teak Anogeissus, Terminalias, and other trees on the projecting southern spurs and slopes, while the valleys are filled with fine forest of partly evergreen partly deciduous growth In these valleys, the chief tree is Pterocarpus Marsupium, but noticeable among others are Mesua ferrea, Cedrela Toona, Chickrassia tabularis and Bischoffia javanica. The second region contains chiefly deciduous forest trees with a fair amount of sandal wood. The third contains timber of large size chief among which are teak and blackwood (Dalbergia latifolia), Pterocarpus Marsupium, Terminalia tomentosa, and red and white cedar The forest of the *sholis* is quite different These *sholis* are patches of thick forest along ravines and watercourses, and separated by grass lands or downs The forest is low the trees rarely reaching 50 to 60 feet in height The trees of the *sholas* are described in a previous section of this article (pp. 305–307)

Certain forest tracts are being selected for legal reservation The *sholis* are very slow in growing, and old trees are not easily replaced Arrangements have been made to plant the quick growing wattles (Acacia melanoxylon and dealbata) and the Australian blue gum (Eucalyptus globulus) Plantations of these trees have been formed near Utakamand, Coonoor, and Wellington The chief are 'Arambi'

and 'Bathri' at Utakamand, 'Old Forest' and 'Bandi *sholá*' at Coonoor, and 'Rallia' near Wellington. These trees, especially the Eucalyptus, grow very fast, and are fit to cut at ten years of age, being then often 100 feet high, with a girth of 2 to 3 feet or even more. The annual increment of Eucalyptus has been ascertained to be about 12 tons per acre per annum; that of wattles, 6 tons. These plantations are being worked in regular rotation for the supply of fuel on the plateau. The produce of the Wainád and Moyár forests consists of teak logs (which are brought for sale to Utakamand), sandal-wood, and myrabolams. The receipts from forests in 1874 was £2692; in 1881, £4110; and in 1883, £4378.

Administration.—The total revenue from all sources in 1868-69, the year in which the Nílgiri Commission was first established, was £10,063, and the expenditure on civil administration, £32,906; in 1874-75, the revenue had increased to £20,507, and the expenditure to £41,491. In 1881-82, the revenue was £50,209, and the expenditure £35,210. The different items of revenue in 1874-75 and 1881-82 were thus returned—land, £4551 in 1874, and £9060 in 1881; *ábkári* or excise, £7276 in 1874, and £16.389 in 1881; forests, £2692 in 1874, and £4111 in 1881; and post-office, £2936 in 1874, and £20,649 in 1881. Expenditure—administrative and public departments, £10,195 in 1874, and £17,455 in 1881; law and justice, £6542 in 1874, and £2651 in 1881; ecclesiastical and medical services, £7505 in 1874, and £6787 in 1881; superannuation, etc. allowances, £3061 in 1874, and £2460 in 1881; land revenue, £5720 in 1874, and £3290 in 1881; forests, £6586 in 1874, and £1590 in 1881; post-office, £17,247 in 1874, and £977 in 1881.

The number of magisterial courts in 1875-76 was 6, and of civil and revenue courts 4. The figures in 1881 were—magisterial courts 9, revenue courts 4. The aggregate strength of the police in 1875 was 141 men, maintained at a cost of £1193. The number of arrests was 373, with 222 convictions. In 1881, the force consisted of 179 men, costing £4286. Number of arrests (1881), 1706; convictions (including summoned cases), 1823. There are 2 prisons in the District, the jail at Utakamand and the European prison. There are also 3 subsidiary jails, one at Wellington, one at Coonoor (Kúnúr), and one at Gúdalúr. The average daily number of prisoners during 1875 was 470, and 380 in 1881. Out of a population of 49,501 in 1871-72, 3990, or 8·1 per cent. (266 of whom were females), could read and write. In 1881, out of a population of 91,034, the number who could read and write (including 1000 females) was 5775, or 6·3 per cent. Among the hill tribes, education has made but little progress. The only two European schools of importance are the Lawrence Asylum, Lovedale, and the Breeks' Memorial School at Utakamand. The

former has been already referred to, the latter, founded in memory of the first Commissioner, is an efficient middle-class school The total number of institutions (including the vernacular schools) was 45 in 1882–83, with 1869 pupils, expenditure thereon, £13 354 The Census of 1881 returned 1765 (of whom 413 were girls) as under instruction

Medical Aspects—Situated as the Nilgiris are, at an average elevation of 6000 feet, equidistant from two seas, sharing two monsoons, and isolated from mountains of similar height, they possess a climate which, for equability of temperature for mildly invigorating qualities, for great salubrity, and for immunity from the disturbing influences common to the climate of most hill stations, is almost unrivalled within the tropics The average temperature deduced from the mean of twenty five months has been fixed at 58° F The hottest season is in April and May, but its occurrence depends upon the character and period of setting in of the south west monsoon The extreme range of temperature, from sunrise to 2 P M, averages commonly 16° F throughout the year In 1881, the maximum at Wellington was 80 1°, and the minimum 37 3° The mean temperature in that year was 61° The rainfall at Wellington in the same year was 48 46 The average annual rainfall for seven years ending 1881 was 45 inches The year before 1881, however, there was an average fall over the District of 70 inches There are only two dispensaries in the District —at Utakamand and Coonoor The European population suffer chiefly from fevers and rheumatism [For further information regarding the Nilgiri Hills, and the tribes inhabiting the tract, see the *Manual of the Nilgiri District*, by H B Grigg Esq, C S (Government Press, Madras, 1880) Also *An Account of the Primitive Tribes and Monuments of the Nilgiris*, by the late J W Breeks, Esq, C S (Allen & Co, London, 1873), the *Madras Census Report* for 1881, and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Madras Government]

Nilgiri—Native State of Orissa, Bengal, lying between 21° 18 50" and 21° 37 N lat, and between 86° 29 and 86° 51′ 30" E long Area, 278 square miles Bounded on the north and west by the State of Morbhanj, and on the east and south by Balasor District One third of the area consists of uncultivated mountain land, one third of waste jungle, and the remaining third is under cultivation Valuable quarries of black stone are worked, from which are made cups, bowls, platters, etc Population in 1881, 50,972, namely, 43,905 Hindus, 32 Musalmáns, 36 Christians, 633 Santals, and 6366 non Hindu aboriginal tribes, namely Bhumijs The total number of villages was returned at 248 The capital and residence of the Rájá is situated in lat 21° 27 20" N, and long 86° 48 41′ E. The State yields a revenue

it is at present used as a magazine The climate of Nimach is agreeable, never exhibiting either extreme of heat or cold, even at the hottest season the nights are generally cool Its elevation above sea level is 1613 feet Nimach occupies rising ground, the cantonment boundary being close under the walls of the city The city is the head quarters of a District of Gwalior In 1881 the population of the city was returned at 5161, namely, Hindus 4157, Muhammadans, 938, and 'others,' 66 Population of the cantonment (1881) 13,069, namely, 7576 males and 5493 females Hindus numbered 9032, Muhammadans, 3218, and 'others,' including Europeans, 819 Nímach is distant 155 miles north west of Mhow, 371 south west of Delhi, 312 south west of Agra, 306 miles west of Sagar, 1114 miles west of Calcutta *via* Allahabád and Ságar

Nimal.—Town in Bannu (Bunnoo) District Punjab—*See* NAMAL.

Nimár—District in the Chief Commissionership of the Central Provinces, lying between 21° 4 and 22° 26 N lat, and between 75° 50 and 77° 1 E long It forms the westernmost District of the Central Provinces, and is bounded on the north and west by the territories of the Rajá of Dhár and of the Maharajá Holkar, on the south by Khandesh District and West Berar, and on the east by Hoshangabad Area, 3340 square miles Population (1881) 231,341 The head quarters of the District are at KHANDWA, which is rapidly taking the place of BURHANPUR as the principal town

Physical Aspects—The modern District of Nimar consists of two river valleys, parted by a range of hills It includes but a small portion of the ancient Hindu Province of Prant Nimár, which occupied the whole of the Narbadá (Nerbudda) valley, lying between the Vindhya hills on the north and the Sátpura range on the south, for about 225 miles, from 74° to 77° 10 E long On the other hand, the Tapti valley was no part of old Pránt Nimár, but belonged to the Hindu Province of Talner, subsequently called by the Muhammadans Khándesh The northern section of the District in the Narbadá valley is broken by low irregular hills, and nowhere presents the open level surface of the more fertile Districts higher up the river It is drained by the Suktá, Abna, Wana, Bhám, Báldi, and Phiprár, which unite in a considerable stream the Chhotá Tawá, before joining the Narbada, and by the Ajnál, Káveri, and Bákur, which fall directly into that river In the north-east corner of this section of the District, a large tract of waste extends along the Chhota Tawa and the Narbadá, but the rest of this region is fairly well cultivated, though the barren ridges which cut up the country in every direction prevent it from presenting a flourishing appearance. Its average elevation above the sea is 1000 feet

The southern section of Nimár District, in the Tápti valley, is more

open and fertile. Towards the west it is carefully cultivated. But higher up the valley, the land, though exceedingly rich, lies utterly desolate; and instead of the thriving villages which occupied it during the Muhammadan period, now only a few Kurkús carry on a rude tillage here and there in a deadly climate. This part of Nimár has an average elevation above the sea of 850 feet. The irregular and broken range which divides the two valleys of the Narbadá and the Tápti, has a width of about 15 miles. It is the only part of the great hilly backbone of the Central Provinces marked in maps as the Sátpura chain, which is really known by that name to the people. On its highest point, about 850 feet above the plain, and 2200 feet above sea-level, stands the fortress of ASIRGARH, commanding a pass through the hills which has for centuries been the chief highway between Upper India and the Deccan. The Hattís, another branch of the same great range, with a height above sea-level of from 2000 to 3000 feet, form the southern boundary of the District. On their other face they rise steeply from the plains of Berar; but the ascent from the Tápti valley is long and gradual, including some plateaux of considerable extent, with excellent soil here and there. Geologically considered, the country consists almost entirely of trap. In far the greater portion the traps are horizontal; but in the low hills west of Asírgarh there is a strong southern dip, in places amounting to 15°. Coal is entirely wanting; but iron-ore is found in the Dhár forest near Punása and Chándgarh.

Of the extensive forests [illegible] only tract reserved by Govern-
ment is the Punása forest [illegible] fo[illegible] 120 miles along
the sou[illegible] of the [illegible] cont[illegible] young teak
(Tect[illegible] besid[illegible] [illegible]a [illegible] and *anjam*
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alis),
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Burhánpur, to be in the centre of a very sportsman's paradise. It is useless, however, to attempt such an expedition earlier than March, when the jungle grass is burnt.

The principal places of interest in Nimár District, besides ASIRGARH, are—KHANDWA and RAVER, in the Narbadá valley; BURHANPUR, in the valley of the Tápti; and MANDHATA, the island in the Narbada sacred to Siva.

History.—Nimar has always been a border land. Even its hill tribes belong to two distinct races, the Bhíls and Kols of Western India here meeting the Gonds and Kurkús from the east. The earliest figures, whether of legend or history, are those of the Haihai kings, who ruled Pránt Nimár from Máhismatí, the modern Maheswar, till they were expelled by the Brahmans. The new rulers introduced the worship of Siva on the island of Mandháta. At first the Bráhman gods found supporters in the Chauhán Rajputs, who held Asírgarh, though their capital was at Makávati (Garha Mandla); but subsequently the Pramara Rájputs, who founded the great Buddhist kingdom of Málwá, seized Asírgarh. A branch of this family called Ták held the fortress from the 9th to the 12th century, and are often commemorated by the poet Chand as leaders in the Hindu armies battling in Northern India against the Muhammadan invader. During this period, the Jain religion, a schism from Buddhism, prevailed in Nimar, and numerous remains of finely carved Jain temples still exist at Khandwa and near Mandháta.

Before the invasion of the Muhammadans however, the Chauháns appear to have recovered Asirgarh and the southern part of the District. In 1295, Sultan Ala ud-dín, returning from his bold raid into the Deccan, took that stronghold, and put all the Chauháns but one to the sword. About this time, Northern Nimár came into the possession of a Bhil, Alá Rájá, whose descendants are still to be found in the chiefs of Bhamgarh, Mandháta, and Silání. Ferishta, indeed, relates a story of a shepherd chief called Asá ruling over all Southern Nimár, and building the fort which from Asa the Ahír (a herdsman) took the name of Asírgarh. But it is almost certain that the country was wholly in the hands of the Chauhan and Bhilala Rájás at the time of the Muhammadan conquest.

About 1387, Northern Nimár became part of the independent Muhammadan kingdom of Malwá, with its capital at Mándu on the Vindhyan hills. Before this, in 1370, Malak Rája Fárukhí had obtained Southern Nimár, then unconquered, from the Delhi Emperor. He reduced the Tapti valley, and was succeeded by his son, Nasír Khán, who captured Asirgarh, and founded the cities of Burhánpur and Zainábád. For eleven generations, from 1399 to 1600, the Fárukhí dynasty of Khandesh ruled at Burhánpur, but their powerful neighbours

of Gujarát and Málwá rendered their independence little more than nominal, and Burhánpur was several times sacked by invading armies. In 1600, the great Emperor Akbar annexed Nimár and Khándesh, capturing Asírgarh by blockade from Bahádur Khán, the last of the Fárúkhís. Akbar divided Northern Nimár into the Districts of Bijágarh and Handiá, and attached it to the *Súbah* of Málwá. Southern Nimár became part of *Súbah* Khandesh. The Prince Dányál was made Governor of the Deccan, with his seat at Burhánpur, where he drank himself to death in 1605.

Under the enlightened rule of Akbar and his successors, Nimár reached the highest degree of prosperity it has ever known. The plains and valleys were carefully cultivated; the roads were thronged with traffic between Málwá and the Deccan; and everywhere rest-houses and wells, aqueducts and reservoirs, studded the District. In 1670, the Maráthás first invaded Khándesh, and wasted the country up to the gates of Burhánpur. During successive harvest seasons they returned; and, in 1684, plundered the city itself immediately after Aurangzeb had left it with his unwieldy army to subdue the Deccan. By 1690 they had overrun Northern Nimár; and in 1716, the *chauth*, or fourth of all revenues, and the *sardesmukhi*, or tenth part of the land revenue, were formally conceded to them by the Mughals. Four years later, the Nizám, Asaf Jáh, seized the Government of the Deccan. At first he confirmed the alienations of revenue to the Maráthás; but disputes soon arose, and the Peshwá repeatedly plundered the District, until he acquired Northern Nimár by the Treaty of 1740. Fifteen years afterwards, Southern Nimár was also ceded to the Peshwá, except Burhánpur and Asírgarh, which, however, followed in 1760.

Under the Peshwá's Government, the District recovered from the evils which had befallen it during the struggle between the Mughals and Maráthás. In 1778, the whole of the present District, except *parganás* Kánápur and Beriá, was transferred to Mahárájá Sindhia. Holkar, at the same time, acquired nearly all the rest of Pránt Nimár. Up to 1800 the District enjoyed tolerable peace; but from that year till 1818 it was subject to one increasing round of invasion and plunder, still known as the 'time of trouble,' from which it has not yet recovered. In 1803 a terrible famine befel the country, and in the same year Southern Nimár was taken by the British after the battle of Assaye, but restored to Sindhia. During the next fifteen years the District was constantly pillaged by Holkar's officers, by the Pindárís, and by the rebellious deputies of Sindhia himself. The Pindárís, in fact, were at home in Nimár; their chief camps were in the dense wilds of Handiá, between the Narbadá (Nerbudda) and the Vindhyan hills; and it was in a Nimár jungle that their daring leader Chitú was killed by a tiger.

The last Peshwa, Báji Ráo, made his way to Nimar after his defeat in the Deccan and surrendered to Sir John Malcolm in 1818. Asírgarh, in which Apá Sáhib the former Rája of Nagpur had taken refuge, was reduced by the British troops in the same year. The British thus acquired *parganas* Kanápur and Beriá as successors to the Peshwá, while Asírgarh and 17 villages round it were retained after the siege. The rest of Nimar came under our management by treaty with Sindhia in 1824. In 1854 several *parganas* were transferred from Hoshangábád to Nimár, and in 1860 Sindhia's *parganas* of Zainábad and Mánjrod, with the city of Burhanpur, were obtained by exchange. At the same time all the *parganás* which we had managed for Sindhia since 1824 became British in full sovereignty. Lastly in 1867 3 *parganás* in the north west corner of the District—Kasrawar, Dhargaon and Barwái—together with Mandleswar, were transferred to Mahárájá Holkar in exchange for some territory in the Deccan.

When the District of Nimár first came under British management in 1818 the country was nearly desolate. With the revival of peace, however, many of the cultivators returned to their homes and the Bhils, who at first proved troublesome, were quieted, chiefly by the efforts of Captain (afterwards Sir James) Outram. Unfortunately, our early fiscal administration was unsuccessful. The District was greatly over-assessed and the revenue farmed to speculators on short leases, while nothing was effected to assist the down trodden cultivators. At length in 1845, the farming system utterly broke down and all the villages were again taken under direct management. The ancient hereditary *pátels* or village head men regained their proper position, the cultivators were secured in possession at a moderate assessment, agriculture was encouraged, old tanks repaired and new ones constructed, and through the efforts chiefly of Captains French, Evans and Keatinge, Nimár entered on a fresh period of prosperity. When the Mutiny broke out in 1857 Asírgarh and Burhánpur were garrisoned by a detachment of the Gwalior contingent. Major Keatinge collected a local force, and fortified the Katí Ghátí Pass on the southern road, besides the old fort at Punása, where the European families took refuge with the treasure. The Asírgarh troops were afterwards quietly disarmed by a detachment of Bombay infantry. In 1858 Tántiá Topi traversed the District with a numerous body of starving followers, who plundered the country on their way, and burned the police buildings at Piplod, Khandwá, and Mokalgaon. The people of the District, however, showed no signs of disaffection during the Mutiny.

Population—A rough enumeration in 1866 returned the population of Nimár at 190,561 souls. The more careful Census of 1872 disclosed 211,176. The last enumeration in 1881 returned the total population of Nimár District at 231,341, showing an increase since 1872 of

20,165 persons, or 9·5 per cent. in nine years. The general results arrived at by the Census of 1881 may be briefly summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3340 square miles, with 2 towns and 625 villages, and 48,592 houses. Total population, 231,341, namely, males 121,008, or 52·3 per cent. of the total population, and females 110,333, or 47·7 per cent. Density of population, 69·3 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·19; persons per village, 370; houses per square mile, 14·55; persons per house, 4·76. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, males 45,369, and females 42,545; total children, 87,914, or 38·0 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 75,639, and females 67,788; total adults, 143,427, or 62 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, the Hindus in 1881 numbered 199,290, or 86·1 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 24,426, or 10·5 per cent.; Jains, 1247; Kabirpanthis, 101; Satnamis, 54; Sikhs, 9; Christians, 789; Pársis, 97; Jews, 46; and non-Hindu aboriginal tribes, 5282, or 2·3 per cent. of the total population. The total aboriginal population by race is returned at 39,041, consisting chiefly of Bhíls, who in 1881 numbered 16,935, and who supply hereditary watchmen to nearly every village in Nimár; Korkus, 9541; Bhilálas, 8648; Náháls, 3036; Gonds, 761; Kols, 99; and other aboriginal tribes, 21. Among the Hindus in 1881, Brahmans numbered 11,898; Rajputs, 19,295; Kurmís, 21,036; Balahís, 19,320; Banyas, 7145; Malís, 6503; and Ahirs, 6455. Of the Christian population, Europeans numbered 249; Eurasians and Indo-Portuguese, 139; natives, 309; and unspecified, 92.

Town and Rural Population.—There are only 2 towns in Nimár with a population in 1881 exceeding 5000, viz. KHANDWA, the District capital (population 15,142), and BURHANPUR (30,017). Besides the above, four other towns have been created municipalities, namely, Shahra (population 2226), Borgaon (1296), Zainábad (1078), and Mandhata (932). These six towns disclose a total urban population of 50,961, or 21·9 per cent. of the District population. Total municipal income (1882-83), £8567, of which £6972 was derived from taxation; average incidence of taxation, 2s. 9d. per head. Of the 627 villages and towns, 335 contain fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 192 from two to five hundred; 70 from five hundred to a thousand; 20 from one to two thousand; 7 from two to three thousand; 1 from three to five thousand; and 2 from fifteen to fifty thousand inhabitants.

The male population of the District is thus classified in the Census according to occupation:—(1) Professional class, including civil and military, 4283; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 1570; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, carriers,

etc, 3785, (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardener 48,295; (5) industrial and manufacturing class 18 637, (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising general labourers, male children and persons of none or of unspecified occupation 44 436

Agriculture —Of the total area of 3340 square miles only 642 are cultivated, and of the portion lying waste 957 square miles are returned as cultivable, and 1741 square miles as unculturable 268 acres are irrigated by Government works, and 12 765 acres by private enterprise The prevailing soil throughout the District is a stiff brown soil termed *mal* which will not, in ordinary seasons bear a *rabi* crop without irrigation but yields excellent rain crops Hence the autumn harvest greatly preponderates over the spring harvest In 1883 84 wheat occupied 29 519 acres, rice, 13,077 acres, and other food grains 294 556 acres 44 056 acres were devoted to oil seeds while sugar cane was grown on 187 acres, cotton on 44,444 acres and tobacco on 202 acres The out turn of wheat from average land is about 700 lbs per acre inferior grain 160 lbs, oil seeds, 240 lbs rice 600 lbs cotton 30 lbs sugar 880 lbs Little manure is wasted in Nimar though its use is generally confined to the better soils the poorer being treated to a periodical fallow instead Irrigation from wells and also from dams thrown across the smaller streams is resorted to for opium tobacco *gunj*, wheat, gram, sugar cane, chillies, and garden stuffs The agricultural stock in the District is returned as follows —Cows bullocks and buffaloes, 179 085, horses, 247 ponies 3472 donkeys 1406 sheep and goats, 19 294, pigs 183 carts 11 496 and ploughs 25 578

The Nimar cultivator is both skilful and industrious, and well understands the value of manure, irrigation and rotation of crops The fine mango and *mahua* trees which abound throughout the District, add considerably to the wealth of the landholding classes Out of the total adult agricultural population (male and female) in 1881 (84,312, or 36 44 per cent of the District population), 9854 were returned as landed proprietors, 2901 as tenants holding at fixed rents or with rights of occupancy 8811 as tenants at will 29 151 as assistants in home cultivation, and 31 638 as agricultural labourers, while the remainder is made up of graziers, tenants of unspecified status, estate agents, etc. Area of cultivated and cultivable land available for each adult agriculturist, 12 acres Of the total area of the District (3340 square miles), only 1327 square miles are assessed for Government revenue Of these, 634 square miles are cultivable, and 274 square miles are unculturable waste Total amount of Government land revenue assessment, including local rates and cesses levied upon land, £19,317, or an average of 9⅝d per cultivated acre Total rental paid by the cultivator, £38,424, an average of 1s 9⅜d per cultivated acre The rent rates per acre

for the different qualities of land were returned as follows in 1883:—Land suited for wheat, 5s.; for inferior grain, 1s. 6d.; for oil-seeds, 2s.; for rice, 7s.; for sugar-cane, 6s.; for cotton, 3s.; for tobacco, 2s. 6d. The ordinary prices of produce per cwt. were as follows:—Wheat, 6s. 1d.; rice, 7s. 6d.; raw sugar (*gúr*), 18s. 5d.; cotton, 37s. The wages per diem of a skilled labourer averaged 1s. 3d.; of an unskilled labourer, 4½d.

Commerce and Trade.—The trade of the District is chiefly carried on by means of weekly *bázárs*, held in twenty-four of the principal towns, and by large fairs which take place every September at Singájí, and every October at Mándháta. The other yearly fairs are of less importance. At these gatherings, English piece and other goods, country cloth, copper vessels, and cattle form the chief articles of traffic. Wheat from Hoshangábád is the principal import. The exports consist almost entirely of the fine gold-embroidered cloth fabrics made at Burhánpur; the gum of the *dháurá* tree (Conocarpus latifolia), of which there are large forests north of the Narbadá, is also exported, to be converted into the gum-arabic of commerce. A considerable through traffic is carried on in Nimár. There were, in 1883, 40 miles of first class, 70 miles of second class, and 189 miles of third class roads in the District. The principal road connects Khandwá with Indore. It carries a very large traffic in opium, cotton, etc., and has travellers' bungalows and rest-houses at easy stages. The road towards Hoshangábád for Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) runs easterly up the valley from Khandwá. It was never metalled nor thoroughly bridged, and, except for local communication, is now superseded by the railway. The other lines are merely fair-weather tracks. The principal are a road passing east and west through the northern part of the District by Ghisúr, Mundí, and Punása, to Barwái; another from Khandwá running south to the important town of Borgáon; and a third from Burhánpur penetrating the Upper Tápti valley as far as Gángrá in Berar, which is much used by Banjára carriers, and for the export of forest produce. The Great Indian Peninsula Railway traverses the District throughout for a length of 112 miles, with stations at Lálbágh for Burhánpur, Chándní for Asírgarh, Dongargáon for Pandháná, Khandwá, Jáwar, and Bír for Mundí.

Administration.—In 1864, Nimár was formed into a separate District of the British Government of the Central Provinces. It is administered by a Deputy Commissioner, with Assistants and *tahsíldárs*. Total revenue in 1883-84, £48,126, of which the land yielded £18,438. Cost of District officials and police of all kinds, £12,400. Number of civil and revenue judges of all sorts, 13; magistrates, 9. Maximum distance from any village to the nearest court, 40 miles; average distance, 6 miles. Number of regular District and town police, 421 men,

costing £6522, being 1 policeman to every 7·99 miles and to every 553 inhabitants. The daily average number of convicts in jail in 1883 was 127, of whom 11 were females. The number of Government or aided schools in the District under Government inspection was 87, attended by 4758 pupils.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the open parts of Nimar is, on the whole, good, though the heat is very fierce in the Narbadá and Tápti valleys during April and May. Central Nimár does not suffer excessive heat in summer, while during the monsoon months the air is cool and clear. The average annual rainfall at Khandwa town for a period of seventeen years ending 1881, is 32·52 inches. In 1883, 37·28 inches fell, of which 34·51 inches were recorded from June to September. The jungle parts of the District are extremely malarious from July to December, and are consequently inhabited only by Kurkus and other hill tribes. The monthly average temperature at the civil station of Khandwa for a period of six years ending 1881 is returned as follows:—January, 66·5° F., February, 71·2, March, 79·9°, April, 87·5°, May, 92·0°, June, 87·9°, July, 80·1°, August, 78·8°, September, 78·6°, October, 77·1°, November, 70·2°, December, 65·9°: average for the year, 78·0° F. The prevalent disease is fever, especially about the close of the monsoon. Cholera used to be an almost annual scourge; but since the stoppage in 1864 of the great religious gatherings in the Upper Narbada valley during the hot season, cholera has rarely been epidemic. In 1883, 5 charitable dispensaries afforded medical relief to 30,171 in-door and out-door patients. Vital statistics in that year showed a death-rate of 50·94 per thousand, which is the highest rate for that year in the Central Provinces; the mean death-rate for the previous five years in Nimár District was 40·93 per thousand, still the highest rate for any District in the Central Provinces. [For further information regarding Nimar, see the *Central Provinces Gazetteer*, by Mr. (now Sir Charles) Grant, pp. 371–387 (Nagpur, 1870). Also the *Settlement Report of Nimar District*, by Captain James Forsyth (1869), the *Census Report of the Central Provinces* for 1881; and the several annual Administration and Departmental Reports of the Central Provinces Government.]

Nimgiri (*Nyimgiri*).—Range of mountains in the Jaipur country, Vizagapatam District, Madras Presidency—lat. 19° 45′ N., long. 82° 30′ E.—rising to a height of 5000 feet, and running parallel to the main chain of the Eastern Ghâts, from which it is separated by valleys not a quarter of a mile in width. The Vamsádhára (*vamsa* = bamboo) river rises in this range. The road from Bissemkatak to Jeypur crosses the Nimgiris by the Papekonmama gorge.

Nímkhar (or *Nimsar*).—Town in Sitápur District, Oudh; situated on the left bank of the Gúmtí, 20 miles from Sitápur town, in lat. 27°

20′ 55″ N., and long. 80° 31′ 40″ E. Population (1881) 2336, chiefly Bráhmans and their dependants. Nímkhar is a place of great sanctity, with numerous tanks and temples. A tradition relates that it was in one of these holy tanks that Ráma washed away his sin of having slain a Bráhman in the person of Rávana, the demon king of Ceylon, who had carried off his wife Sítá.

Nimkhera. — Petty guaranteed Thákurate or State under the Bhopáwár or Bhíl Agency of Central India; situated among the spurs of the Vindhyan range. It contains several well-wooded valleys. Under a settlement effected by Sir John Malcolm, the Bhúmia or chief holds the village of Tirla in hereditary succession, paying an annual tribute of about £50 to the State of Dhár, and is answerable for all robberies between Dhár and Sultánpur. Revenue, £1530 in 1881-82. Expenditure, £1340.

Nimrána. — Town in Alwár State, Rájputána, situated 10 miles north-east of Behror. The residence of the Nimrána Rájá, a feudatory of Alwar. Nimrána estate comprises ten villages; and its annual revenue is about £2400. The tribute to be paid by Nimrána was fixed at £300 from 1868 to 1898.

Nímuniá (*Nimuia*).—Village in Champáran District, Bengal. Lat. 26° 45′ 30″ N., long. 85° 6′ E. Population (1872) 5108. Not returned separately in the Census Report of 1881.

Nindo Shahr.—Village in the Badin *táluk* of Tando Muhammad Khán Sub-division, Haidarábád (Hyderábád) District, Sind, Bombay Presidency; situated on the left bank of the Sherwáh, 69 miles south-east of Haidarábád city. Roads to Wango Bázár, Kadhan, Luári, and Wahnái. Head-quarters of a *tappádár*. Population (1881) under 2000. Trade in grain, dates, *ghí*, sugar, molasses, cocoa-nuts, cochineal, cotton, drugs, and cloth. Transit trade in millet and cloth. An unhealthy and low-lying town, built about 120 years ago by Nindo Khán Talpur. Lat. 24° 37′ 30″ N., long. 69° 5′ E.

Nipání. — Town and municipality in Belgáum District, Bombay Presidency; situated on the road from Belgáum to Kolhápur, 40 miles north of Belgáum town, in lat. 16° 23′ 40″ N., and long. 74° 25′ 10″ E. Population (1881) 9777, namely, Hindus, 8009; Muhammadans, 1039; Jains, 726; and Christians, 3. Nipání is a municipality with an income (1883-84) of £1184; incidence of municipal taxation, 2s. 3d. The estate of which this town was the principal place lapsed to the British Government in 1839, upon the demise of its proprietor, and was annexed in 1842. In the following year the fort was dismantled. Nipání has a large trade, and a crowded weekly market on Thursdays; on market days 2000 to 3000 cattle are offered for sale. Travellers' bungalow, rest-house, library, post office, four Government and two private schools.

Niphád.—Sub-division of Násik District, Bombay Presidency Area, 411 square miles, containing 121 villages Population (1881) 87,523, namely, 43,828 males and 43,695 females. Hindus number 80,111, Muhammadans, 3353, and 'others,' 4059 Land revenue (1881), £18,232

The Sub division is bounded on the north by Chandor on the east by Yeola and Kopargaon, on the south by Sinnar and on the west by Dindori and Nasik Sub-divisions The region is an undulating plain of deep black soil, yielding rich crops of wheat and gram The north eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway passes through Niphád Sub division, which is also well supplied with roads Climate good, but heat excessive in May and April Water supply sufficient, the chief river being the Godavari In 1880-81 there were 5313 holdings, with an average area of 35 acres, and an average rental of £5, 9s 7½d, incidence of land tax about 6s 9d per head of total population In 1880-81, of 167 649 acres held for cultivation, 17,931 were fallow or under grass Of the remaining 149,718 acres, 386 were twice cropped Of 150,104 acres, the area under actual cultivation, grain crops occupied 123,329 acres (66,007 being under wheat), pulses occupied 14 444 acres, oil seeds, 6538 acres, fibres occupied 202 acres, all under hemp and miscellaneous crops, 5591 acres In 1884 the Sub-division contained 1 civil and 4 criminal courts, number of police circles (*thanas*), 2, regular police, 54 men, village watch (*chaukidars*), 188

Niphád.—Chief town of Niphad Sub-division, Násik District, Bombay Presidency, situated about 20 miles north east of Nasik town Population (1881) 3585 Niphad is a station on the north-eastern branch of the Great Indian Peninsula Railway Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional revenue and police offices, the town has a post office

Nir.—Rich agricultural village in Hardoi District, Oudh, 6 miles south-east of Hardoi town Population (1881) 2733, chiefly Chamárs It was founded by Nir Singh, a Chamár Gaur in the service of the Hindu kings of Kanauj, who drove the Thatheras out of their stronghold at Besohra, and utterly destroyed it. A ruined mound of brick still marks the site.

Nirgunda—Village in Chitaldrug District, Mysore State Lat 13° 47′ N., long 76° 15′ E. Population (1881) 210 Once the capital of the Jain principality of Nirgunda, included in the Ganga empire 1500 years ago According to tradition, it was founded 150 B.C. by a king from the north called Nila Sekhara, who gave it the name of Nilávati patna. The name of Nirgunda is found on the celebrated Merkara plates of the 5th century A.D. Mounds of ruins and several old temples are still in existence, with a Hoysala Ballala inscription of 1056

Nirmal.—Fortified town in the Nizám's Dominions. Lat. 19° 5′ 49″ N., long. 78° 25′ 28″ E.; situated on the old Secunderábád-Nágpur road. The fortifications, which are now in ruins, were the work of French officers formerly in the Nizám's service. A few miles from the town, bordering on the river Godávari, is an extensive forest, also called Nirmal, composed chiefly of teak trees, and abounding with game of all description.

Nitai.—River in the Gáro Hills District, Assam. It rises in the Turá range, and flows a very winding course in a southerly direction until it empties itself into the Káns or Kánks river in the Bengal District of Maimansingh.

Niti.—Mountain pass in Garhwál District, Punjab, leading over the main Himálayan system into Tibet. Lat. 30° 46′ 10″ N., long 79° 51′ 50″ E. It lies along the course of the Dhauli river, and has an elevation above sea-level of 16,570 feet.

Nizámpatam (*Pettipollee* or *Pettapoly*).—Seaport in Repalli *táluk*, Kistna District, Madras Presidency. Lat. 15° 54′ 30″ N., long. 80° 42′ 35″ E. Population (1881) 4128; number of houses, 879. Frequented by native craft engaged in the coasting trade. The average annual value of imports for the five years ending 1883–84 was £11,225; and of exports, £25,606. Value of imports in 1883–84, £8036; and of exports, £12,228. Nizampatam is an important salt station. The mangrove swamps supply firewood to Masulipatam, which is close by.

Nizámpatam was the first port at which the English commenced to trade on the eastern coast of India. They landed on 26th August 1611, sent goods on shore, and left two supercargoes, picking them up again on the ship's return from Masulipatam. They then proceeded across the Bay of Bengal on their way to Bantam. Factory established in 1621. Ceded to the French by the Nizám as part of the Northern Circars. As part of the Nizámpatam Circar, it was bestowed on the English by Salábat Jang, the Nizám, in 1759; and the grant was confirmed by the Emperor's firman, 12th August 1765. The port is mentioned by Ferishta. The English, who had a temporary house on the creek in 1611, called it Pettipollee, from the neighbouring village of Pedapalli. The proper spelling of the name is said to be Nyshampatnam, as it was in existence long previous to the establishment of Haidarábad and its Nizáms. Nizámpatam was the scene of a murder of Europeans by the Malay crew of the Dutch sloop, the *Helena*.

Nizám's Dominions.—State of Southern India.—*See* HAIDARABAD.

Noákhálí (*Noacolly*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 20° 22′ and 23° 17′ 30″ N. lat., and between 90° 43′ and 91° 40′ E. long. Area, 1641 square miles. Population (1881) 820,772. The District forms a portion of the Chittagong Division. It is bounded on the north by the District of Tipperah and the State

of Hill Tipperah, on the east by Hill Tipperah and the District of Chittagong, and by the eastern mouth of the Meghna, known as the Sandwip (Sundeep) Channel, on the south by the Bay of Bengal, and on the west by the main stream of the Meghná The administrative head-quarters are at the town of SUDHARAM or Noákhali

Physical Aspects—Noákhálí District consists of an alluvial tract of mainland, together with several islands at the mouth of the Meghna The mainland portion is intersected by watercourses in all directions, and during the rainy season, the whole country is submerged, with the exception of the villages, which are generally built on artificially raised sites The tanks are usually embanked in order to keep out the surface water In general, each homestead is surrounded by a thick grove of areca and cocoa nut palms. In the north west of the District, dense forests of areca palms extend for miles As in most deltaic tracts, the level of the land between the river channels is lower than that bordering on them The District is very fertile, and with the exception of some sandbanks and recent accretions every part of it is under continuous cultivation The only hill is part of Raghunandan Hill, locally called Baraiar Dala in the extreme north east of the District It is said to be 600 feet above the level of the sea. The river MEGHNA enters the District from Tipperah, and after flowing along its western boundary falls into the sea by a number of mouths, the principal being the Shahbázpur the Hatiá, the Bamni, and the Sandwip rivers—all of which are navigable throughout the year The principal tributaries of the Meghna are the Dákátia and the Bará Pheni (Great Fenny) both navigable throughout the year

The banks of the Meghná are either sloping or abrupt and under mined, according as alluvion or diluvion is taking place The sea-coast of the mainland and the island of Sandwip are now undergoing diluvion on their southern face whilst the island of Hatiá is subject to the same influence on its eastern shore, corresponding accretions are being formed on several of the islands and on the mainland at the mouth of the Pheni river Where the older formations abut on the river, the banks are cultivated newly formed soil is commonly used as pasture ground

Principal islands formed by the river along the sea face—Sandwip, Hatiá, Lawrence *char*, Sibnath *char* (recently transferred to Bákarganj District), Tum *char*, Bikatshu *char*, and Káli *char* The process of alluvion is proceeding at a rapid rate Several new *chars* have recently formed. On the other hand, one considerable island, the Lakshmidiá *char*, has been eaten away, and has now completely disappeared The Dakátiá river is said to be silting up owing to the Chandpur Canal having diverted its waters into a new channel Dr Hooker wrote in 1854 'The mainland of Noákhálí is gradually extending seawards, and has

advanced 4 miles within twenty-three years.' In the last century the river reached up to the head-quarters station of Sudhárám, which is at present 8 miles from the bank. The alluvial accretions to the south are now being cut away, and it is possible that the Meghná may again for a time approach the station. But notwithstanding all temporary checks, the process of land-making is slowly but surely going on to the south and west, as is clearly indicated by a comparison of Rennel's Atlas with the recent Survey Maps. On the southern side of the mainland, and to the east of Hátiá Island, the localities most exposed to the full sweep of the tide, diluvion takes place to a great extent; but the loss from this cause is more than compensated for by alluvion.

The estuary of the Meghná, being encumbered with shoals and islands, has two tidal waves. At every full and new moon, especially at the time of the equinox, a 'bore' or tidal wave runs up for several successive days. It is highest at the mouth of the Phení river, and in the channel between Hátiá and the mainland, where the tides meet; and it is felt as far up as Ráipur. The 'bore' presents the appearance of a wall of water, sometimes 20 feet in height, with a velocity of 15 miles an hour. There are two canals in the District, and 35 ferries, yielding revenue to Government. The average annual number of deaths by drowning during the ten years ending 1873 was 242.

A large river traffic is carried on, by which the surplus produce of the District finds its way to Chittagong; but there are no large river-side towns. Since the manufacture of salt has been prohibited, the industries of the river and seaside population are of the same character as those of the people living inland. Nearly all get their living either wholly or partly by agriculture or by keeping cattle, large herds of which are pastured on the small islands or *chars*, which are covered with long grass. Even the boatmen follow agriculture as an auxiliary means of subsistence, although many of them annually migrate to Akyab and Bákarganj for employment, while others work as boatmen in Calcutta. Almost the only people in the District who live entirely by river industries are the fishermen, whose small hamlets are met with on all the rivers and watercourses.

Long-stemmed rice is extensively cultivated in the lowlands and marshes in the interior of the District. The plant grows with the rise of the floods, and is said to live in as much as 14 feet of water. Reeds grow spontaneously on the new alluvial river formations, and can be had for the cutting. Long lines of embankments have been constructed along the sea face of the mainland and of the islands in the estuary of the Meghná; but these frequently fail to afford adequate protection, and as in the case of the cyclone of 1876, are sometimes overtopped and washed away by storm-waves, which inundate the country for miles inland, causing a vast destruction of human life and property.

The wild animals of Noakhálí include the tiger, leopard (both now extremely rare, and confined to the neighbourhood of the hills on the borders of Hill Tipperah), buffalo, boar, and several kinds of deer. Of small game there are hares, pheasants, partridges, quail, plovers, snipe, duck, teal, etc.

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The Portuguese at one time played an important part in the affairs of this part of the country. They first made their appearance about the end of the 16th century, when they are mentioned as being in the employ of the Rája of Arakan, many of them holding high commands, and possessing extensive grants on the mainland and in the adjacent islands. In 1607 they gave offence to the Rájá of Arakan, who determined to expel them from his dominions. Many of them were put to death, but a number escaped in small vessels, and betook themselves to the congenial occupation of piracy, for which the numerous islands at the mouths of the Ganges afforded ample scope.

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advanced 4 miles within twenty-three years.' In the last century the river reached up to the head-quarters station of Sudhárám, which is at present 8 miles from the bank. The alluvial accretions to the south are now being cut away, and it is possible that the Meghná may again for a time approach the station. But notwithstanding all temporary checks, the process of land-making is slowly but surely going on to the south and west, as is clearly indicated by a comparison of Rennel's Atlas with the recent Survey Maps. On the southern side of the mainland, and to the east of Hátiá Island, the localities most exposed to the full sweep of the tide, diluvion takes place to a great extent; but the loss from this cause is more than compensated for by alluvion.

The estuary of the Meghná, being encumbered with shoals and islands, has two tidal waves. At every full and new moon, especially at the time of the equinox, a 'bore' or tidal wave runs up for several successive days. It is highest at the mouth of the Phení river, and in the channel between Hátiá and the mainland, where the tides meet; and it is felt as far up as Ráipur. The 'bore' presents the appearance of a wall of water, sometimes 20 feet in height, with a velocity of 15 miles an hour. There are two canals in the District, and 35 ferries, yielding revenue to Government. The average annual number of deaths by drowning during the ten years ending 1873 was 242.

A large river traffic is carried on, by which the surplus produce of the District finds its way to Chittagong; but there are no large river-side towns. Since the manufacture of salt has been prohibited, the industries of the river and seaside population are of the same character as those of the people living inland. Nearly all get their living either wholly or partly by agriculture or by keeping cattle, large herds of which are pastured on the small islands or *chars*, which are covered with long grass. Even the boatmen follow agriculture as an auxiliary means of subsistence, although many of them annually migrate to Akyab and Bákarganj for employment, while others work as boatmen in Calcutta. Almost the only people in the District who live entirely by river industries are the fishermen, whose small hamlets are met with on all the rivers and watercourses.

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all the Portuguese on the island to be put to death. His fleet engaged the Portuguese off the island of Dakshin Sháhbázpur; and the result was most disastrous to the Mughals, Fateh Khán and the greater part of his troops being killed, and the whole of his ships captured. Elated by this victory, the pirates elected as their leader one Sebastian Gonzales, a common sailor, and resolved to establish for themselves a permanent settlement on the island of Sandwíp. In 1609 they besieged and captured the fort in which the Muhammadan troops had taken refuge, and put the defenders to the sword in revenge for the murder of the Portuguese on Sandwíp Island by Fateh Khán. Having thus made himself master of the island, Gonzales in a short time had an armed force under his command, consisting of 1000 Portuguese, 2000 Indian soldiers, 200 cavalry, and 80 vessels, well armed with cannon, with which he seized the islands of Sháhbázpur and Pátelbanga.

In 1610, the Rájá of Arakan joined with the Portuguese to invade Bengal, the former by land, and the latter, with the fleet under the command of Gonzales, by sea. At first they met with little opposition, and both Lakshmipur and Bhuluá, in the present District of Noákhálí, fell into their hands; but they were afterwards defeated by the Mughal troops, and pursued nearly as far as Chittagong. On hearing of the defeat of his ally, the Rájá of Arakan, Gonzales treacherously put to death the captains of the ships, seized the fleet, and proceeded to plunder the Arakan coast. He was repulsed, however, in an attack upon the capital; and thereupon he induced the Portuguese Viceroy of Goa to despatch an expedition against Arakan, with a view to annexing the country. An expedition, under the command of Don Francis de Menesis, was accordingly fitted out, and in October 1615 arrived at Arakan, where it was subsequently joined by Gonzales with 50 ships. On the 15th November a combined attack was made. The Arakanese were assisted by some Dutch vessels, and after an obstinate fight, which lasted all day, they compelled the Portuguese to retire. After this defeat the enterprise was abandoned, and the expedition returned to Goa. In the following year, Sandwíp was invaded by the Rájá of Arakan, who defeated Gonzales, and took possession of the island.

When Sháistá Khán came to Bengal as Nawáb or Governor, in 1664, he resolved to rid the country of the piratical horde which had so long devastated it; and he intended, after doing this, to attack the King of Arakan, according to the orders of Aurangzeb. Seeing, however, that it was impossible, owing to the nature of the country, to transport an army by land from Bengal to Arakan, and fearing that the pirates would prevent his taking his troops by sea, he determined to interest the Dutch in his designs. With this object, he sent an ambassador to Batavia to treat for the joint occupation of Arakan.

'The Batavian general consented, and despatched two vessels of war to Bengal in order to assist in the transport of the Mughal troops.

Meanwhile Shaistá Khán, having prepared a large transport fleet, threatened the pirates with annihilation telling them of the designs of Aurangzeb on Arakan and adding that a powerful army of Dutch was close at hand By such threats, and the most liberal promises of land and pay, if they would leave the service of the Arakan Rájá and enter that of Aurangzeb, he cajoled them into landing in Bengal with their wives and children The Nawáb received them with open arms, over whelmed them with favours, and placed their families in Dacca Then without giving them time to cool, he made them join his army in the attack and capture of the island of Sandwip, then in the hands of the Rajá of Arakan From Sandwip he passed with all his forces to Chittagong, which was taken in 1666 His purpose being accomplished, and having in his power the families of the Portuguese, he ridiculed all his previous liberal promises taunted the pirates with having abandoned the Arakan Rájá, their master and treated them with great severity They never recovered their independence and their descen dants have gradually sunk to the level of the natives, whose dress and customs they have for the most part adopted They are still Christians, and retain their old Portuguese names

About 1756, the East India Company established factories in Noákhálí and Tipperah, ruins of some of which still remain In 1790 a Salt Agent was appointed at Sudharam to superintend the manufacture of salt on the islands Much of the salt thus made was exported to Chittagong, and thence to Calcutta In 1827, the Salt Agent was invested with the powers of a Collector The District, so far as its revenue jurisdiction went, was then known as Zilá Bhuluá. Afterwards in consequence of the prevalence of robbery and *dakáiti* in this part of the country, a joint magistrate was invested with the criminal administra tion of the District, and the name of Noakháli was adopted to designate the new jurisdiction The local name of the head quarters station is, however, neither Bhulua nor Noákhálí, but Sudharám, after the name of a prominent landholder

Population.—Previous to 1872, several attempts were made to ascer tain approximately the population of Noákhálí In 1850, it was estimated at 352,975 souls, in 1856, at 438,456, and in 1865, at 293 540 According to an estimate based on an enumeration of the houses in 1868, the population was returned at 348,250 All these estimates were, in 1872, found to be much below the truth, the Census of that year disclosing a population, on the District as at present constituted, of 840,376, or of 713 934, exclusive of the Mirkásarai and Chhágalnaiya *thánás*, which have been added to Noákháli from Chitta gong and Tipperah Districts since 1872 At the last enumeration in

1881, the population of Noákhálí was ascertained to be 820,772. showing a decrease, as compared with the population of the same area in 1872, of 19,604 persons, or 2·33 per cent. This decrease is entirely due to the disastrous loss of life caused by the cyclone and storm-wave of 1876.

The Bengal Census Report states: 'The deaths from drowning caused by the cyclone and storm-wave are believed to have been 36,324, while 49,061 died of the sickness which followed it, making a total of 85,385 lives lost in this double calamity. Most of this mortality fell upon the southern *thánás* of Hátiá, Begamganj, and Sandwip, and its extent may be guessed by the fact that more than four years after the event these *thánás* show a falling off from the figures of 1872 of 25·58 per cent., 15·54 per cent., and 16·72 per cent. respectively. But for this calamity, the District officer reports that there would certainly have been a large increase, for the peasantry who were destroyed were a most prosperous class. Cultivation is now everywhere extending, and population advances. In the north and east of the District there is a slight falling off, very marked among the males, which is explained by the absence of many persons at the time of the Census, who were employed in collecting forest produce in Hill Tipperah; and it is asserted that from this portion of the District there is some permanent emigration to that State, as the Mahárájá insists upon residence within his territories as a qualification for grants of cultivable land.'

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 1641 square miles, with 2471 towns and villages, and 92,107 houses, of which 86,958 were occupied, and 5149 unoccupied. Total population, 820,772, namely, males 415,248, and females 405,524; proportion of males, 50·6 per cent. Average density of population, 500·17 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·51; persons per village, 332; houses per square mile, 56·13; persons per house, 9·44. Classified according to sex and age, there were in 1881—under 15 years of age, males 184,408, and females 172,017; total children, 356,425, or 43·5 per cent. of the District population: 15 years and upwards, males 230,840, and females 233,507; total adults, 464,347, or 56·5 per cent.

Religion.—Classified according to religion, Noákhálí contains a larger proportion of Muhammadans than any other District in Bengal, except Bogra and Rájsháhí. In 1881, Muhammadans numbered 608,592, or 74·15 per cent. of the total population; Hindus, 211,476, or 25·76 per cent.; Christians, 588; Buddhists, 114; and 'others,' 2.

The Muhammanans belong, almost without exception, to the Sunni sect, and most of them are Faráizís, or observers of the strict commandments of the Kurán. They do not evince any open intolerance or bigotry, by interfering with Hindu processions, or by annoying the

on Sandwíp Island and the ruins of the Company's factories, already referred to. BHULUA was one of the military outposts of the Mughal Empire, and was in 1610 the scene of a battle between the Mughals and the combined forces of the Portuguese and Arakanese. Of the 2471 villages comprising the District, 1431 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 627 between two and five hundred; 261 between five hundred and a thousand; 98 between one and two thousand; 34 between two and three thousand; 11 between three and five thousand; and 9 between five and ten thousand inhabitants. These last, however, are only aggregates of small villages. As above stated, Sudhárám is the only place in Noákhálí with a population exceeding five thousand.

Material Condition of the People.—As in the other Districts of Eastern and South-Eastern Bengal, the people as a rule are extremely well off. They dress and live well, and their cattle also are in good condition. Each man has, the Collector states, his grove of areca palms around his house, which yields him a good profit, without any labour; and every one, even the poorest, possesses a small plot of land. The signs of great material prosperity are unmistakable, and strike every new-comer to the District. The rates of rent are low; and the soil, especially on the alluvial accretions in the rivers, very productive, yielding rich crops in return for a minimum of labour. The condition of the people has distinctly improved within the last few years.

On this subject, a late Collector of the District writes: 'This improvement is seen both in their dress and in their dwellings. A peasant's dress formerly consisted of a piece of cloth round the loins, worth not more than six or eight *ánnás* (9d. or 1s.). He now spends four or five rupees (8s. or 10s.) on clothes every half-year, and wears a *dhutí*, *chádar*, and a cap. The introduction of English piece-goods has made these articles cheaper, and he is better able to pay for them. Houses, which used to be built of straw, bamboos, and reeds, on low marshy land, are now constructed on well-raised lands, and of better and more durable materials. Each homestead is surrounded by a grove, which gives it a pleasing appearance, but interferes with ventilation. The number of utensils in domestic use is much larger than formerly, and there is much more comfort. The cost of living has increased—say, for a cultivator, from six *pies* (three-farthings) to an *ánná* (three-halfpence) per day.'

Occupations.—As regards occupation, the Census Report of 1881 divides the male population into the following six main divisions:—(1) Professional class, including all persons engaged in Government service, 11,120; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, etc., 8762; (3) commercial class, including merchants, traders, carriers, etc., 11,419; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners,

139,735; (5) manufacturing and industrial class, 33,251; (6) indefinite and non productive class, comprising male children and 9960 general labourers, 210,961

Agriculture—Rice forms in Noákhálí, as elsewhere in Bengal, the staple of cultivation It consists of two great crops, the *áus* or early rice, and the *aman* or winter rice, each of which is divided into two classes, and again sub-divided into many varieties. The first class of *aus* rice is sown in March and April, and reaped in July and August, the second description is sown in June and July, and reaped in October and November The first kind of *aman* rice is sown in March and April, transplanted in June and July, and reaped in November and December, the second kind, sown in July and August, is also transplanted, and is reaped in the latter part of November and throughout December. Of these four rice crops, 53 well-defined varieties are named

Amongst other crops grown in the District may be mentioned pulses, mustard and other oil seeds, cocoa nuts chillies, areca nut, and a little betel leaf, turmeric, sugar cane (a garden crop), and jute for domestic consumption Areca nut is the most valuable product of the north of the District, especially in Lakshmipur *thana* According to an official estimate made in 1873-74, out of the then total area of the District (996,480 acres), 747 360 acres were devoted to the cultivation of food grains. Roughly speaking, a fair out turn from an acre of land is about 17½ cwts. of paddy or unhusked rice, or about half that quantity of husked rice The value varies according to the quality of rice grown, the best description of *áman* paddy being worth, on an average, from 2s to 2s 8d per cwt, and *aus* paddy from 1s 4d to 2s per cwt A second crop is obtained from nearly all good land, and the average out turn of an acre of such land would be about 27 cwts of paddy, valued at £3 10s

Wages have more than doubled within the past twenty years Agricultural day labourers now receive 6d. to 8d a day, or as much as 1s a day at harvest time, besides two meals from their employers, ordinary coolies are paid all the year round at the rate of three men for the rupee, or 8d a day per man, smiths, carpenters, and bricklayers are seldom paid at a daily rate, but by the job Prices of food grains have also risen, but there is no evidence to show whether this rise has kept even pace with the increase in the rate of wages The average price of the best cleaned rice during the years 1870-73 was 6s 2d per cwt., and of common cleaned rice, 4s 1d per cwt In 1882-83 the average price of common rice was 4s 1d, and in 1883-84, 5s. 5d per cwt In the latter year, prices ruled exceptionally high, owing to a less than average crop on the higher lands, caused by deficient rainfall.

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There is a good deal of waste land in the District, but not much of it is fit for cultivation. Tenures for bringing waste lands into cultivation, called *ábádkári háwálas* and *ábádkári táluks*, are common; at the present time, however, they are usually held by men of wealth, who underlet them to the actual cultivators. The general condition upon which such tenures are granted is, that rent is to be paid at first only upon so much of the area as is actually under cultivation. The remainder is held rent-free for a term of years, the tenant agreeing to cultivate and to pay rent on increased portions of the area of his holding year by year, till the entire cultivable area is brought under tillage. The land is measured with a longer rod than that used in measurements of cultivated holdings, and the tenant is allowed a deduction of one-fifth of the area of the rent-paying lands. These tenures are generally admitted to be hereditary, and to convey a right of occupancy in so much of the lands covered by them as has been actually brought into cultivation by the holders. In some instances, however, purchasers of estates have succeeded in cancelling these tenures, and reducing the holders to the status of mere tenants-at-will. It is not customary to allow lands to lie fallow, and no system of rotation of crops is followed.

The estates of Noákhálí may be divided into four classes—(1) Government *khás maháls* (136 in number in 1883), in which the Government has retained the full proprietary right; (2) temporarily settled estates, and private estates under Government management, 24; (3) lands of which Government has only a right to a fixed revenue (*zamíndáris* and *khárijá* or independent *táluks*), numbering 1547; and (4) estates with respect to which the Government has neither a proprietary right nor a claim to receive revenue, of which there are 56. In addition to these, there are numerous intermediate tenures. The practice of sub-letting land is universal, each class of tenure-holder paying a different rate of rent. Under the *zamíndár* or landlord is the *tálukdár*, who pays one rate; under him is the *hawáladár*, who pays another; then comes the *ním-hawáladár*, who pays a third rate; and then the *ráyat* or actual cultivator, who may hold from any of the above, and who pays a fourth rate. In the south of the District it is common for the *ráyat* to again sub-let portions of his holdings to yearly tenants called *jotdárs*. There are a few proprietors who cultivate their own lands without either a superior landlord above, or a sub-tenant below them. They are chiefly the owners of small plots of resumed military tenures (*jágírs*), and the *tálukdárs* in a portion of Amrábád *parganá*. There is no tendency towards the growth of any distinct class of landless day-labourers. With few exceptions, every man either possesses or rents some land, which he cultivates. Arrangements are sometimes made by which one man supplies the seed or cattle, or the labour required for cultivating land rented by another, in considera-

tion of receiving a share of the crop This is, however, only a particular form of land tenure, and does not seem to be any indication of the growth of a class of day labourers proper Many of the poorer cultivators also occasionally hire themselves out to work for the richer landholders

In 1883–84 Noákhálí District contained 1707 revenue paying estates owned by 8682 individual proprietors or coparceners In 1883–84 the land revenue collections amounted to £6[illegible]54 equal to an average payment of £36, 10s 3d for each estate or £[illegible] 4s 1d by each proprietor As explained above rent rates vary according to the tenure under which the land is held The rates paid by the actual cultivators in 1872 were returned as follows —Rice land on the main land, from 8s 2d to 11s 6d per acre according to the quality of the rice grown garden land from 15s to 16s 6d an acre In the more recently formed Government chars where the soil is of inferior quality, cultivators hold at favourable rates In 1872 the rates of rent for rice land in these chars varied from 2s 8d to 6s 3d per acre

Natural Calamities —Insects occasionally do great damage to the crops, but not on such a scale as to affect the general harvest of the District. The calamity to which Noákhálí is most subject is flood generally caused by southerly gales or cyclones occurring at the time when the Meghna is swollen by heavy rains and when the tides are highest — namely, at new or full moon about the period of either equinox These floods are very destructive the damage being caused not so much by the mere inundation as by the sea water The flood raised by a storm wave subsides almost directly but pools of salt water are left in every field When evaporation sets in the water of these pools becomes salter than the Meghna itself and kills the growing rice The crops were destroyed generally in 1822 and 1825 by heavy floods and in 1848 1869 and 1876 the crops on the islands and along the river banks were destroyed from the same cause

The cyclone and storm wave of the 31st October 1876 was terribly isastrous in its effects sweeping over the delta of the Meghna and preading death and disease throughout the three Districts of Noákhálí, akarganj and Chittagon The loss of life in Noákhálí was appalling he precise mortality in several small areas was at once ascertained, d from the information thus obtained it was estimated that, out of a l population of 384 767 inhabiting the four mainland *thánas* of hàram, Bamni, Amirgaon, and Mirkásarái principally affected by cyclone, no fewer than 30,000 had been drowned In the island of á, the number of deaths was estimated at 30 000 out of a population ,147, and in Sandwip, at 40 000 out of 87 016 In the two islands our *thánás*, therefore, the estimates give a total of 100 000 deaths a population of 525,930, or a mortality of 19 per cent.

The details of the calamity (a full account of which is given in the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, vol. vi. pp. 525–532) were very distressing. In one *char* alone, out of 177 people, 137 died. The flood occurred at midnight, and the whole damage was done in a few minutes. A great wave, several feet high, suddenly burst over the country; this was immediately followed by another still higher, and by a third; escape in most cases was simply impossible. No protective measure against these calamities seems practicable; the trees which invariably surround the homesteads saved most of those who survived.

The highest prices reached for food-grains during the famine of 1866 were—for best husked rice, 19s. 9d. a cwt.; common husked rice, 12s. 10d.; best paddy, 14s. 7d.; and common paddy, 9s. 9d. a cwt. The famine, however, did not directly affect Noákhálí District; the rise in prices was solely owing to the demand caused by the failure of the crops elsewhere.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—Despite its extensive river coast, extending from Ráipur to the mouth of the Bará Pheni, a distance of 200 miles, and its consequent favourable situation for the growth of commerce, the trade of Noákhálí is not extensive, and little enterprise is shown in developing its capabilities. Business is carried on by means of permanent markets. There is a busy mart at Ráipur on the Dákátiá river, to which rice, areca-nuts, oranges, and garden produce are brought from the neighbourhood. The traffic on the Little Pheni and the Mahendra *khál* supplies Chittagong with a large portion of its rice. Cotton from Hill Tipperah and the Chittagong Hill Tracts, *kunda* boats (dug-outs) also from the Chittagong Hill Tracts, and jute from Tipperah, are imported into Noákhálí by way of the Bará Pheni and its tributaries. The principal exports are rice, areca-nuts, and cocoa-nuts; the chief imports—European cotton goods, pulses, brass utensils, salt, sugar, spices, iron, lime, bamboos, and salted fish.

No manufactures worthy of the name are at present carried on in Noákhálí. A coarse description of *sitalpati* mat is made. Cloth-weaving is also practised to some extent; but this industry, which was formerly carried on by the East India Company on a large scale in the District, is rapidly disappearing, owing to the competition of European piece-goods.

The total extent of water-ways in the District is 340 miles, of which 299 miles are rivers and *kháls*, and 41 miles are canals. Land communications have been much extended of late years. Including roads under construction, the total length of land communications in 1883 was 310 miles, exclusive of village roads.

Administration.—Noákhálí was first formed into a separate District in 1822. In 1824–25, the earliest year for which records are available, the gross revenue of the District amounted to £51,828, and the

gross expenditure to £6979 By 1850–51 the revenue had risen to £115,408, and the expenditure to £18,321, so that in twenty six years both the revenue and expenditure had more than doubled In 1870–71 the revenue amounted to £96,955, and the expenditure to £23,096 In 1883–84 the six main items of revenue aggregated £101,852, made up as follows —Land revenue, £62 554, excise, £1580, stamps, £26,838, registration, £3137 road cess, £7389, and municipal taxes, £354 Cost of officials and police, £16 777 The land revenue remained almost stationary during the thirty five years preceding 1884 In 1842–43 it amounted to £53 177, in 1850–51 to £64,857, in 1870–71 to £55 024, and in 1883–84 to £62 554.

For police purposes, the District is divided into 9 *thánás* In 1883–84 the regular police force numbered 288 men of all ranks, besides a municipal or town police of 15 men maintained at a total cost of £6140 There was also a rural police or village watch of 2013 men, maintained by the villagers and costing in money or lands an estimated sum of £7649 The total machinery therefore, for the protection of person and property consisted of 2316 officers and men, giving 1 policeman to every 0 71 of a square mile of the area or to every 355 of the population The estimated total cost was £13 789, equal to an average of £8, 8s per square mile of area, or 4d per head of the population. There is one jail in the District at Sudharám, and a subordinate prison at the head quarters of the Pheni Sub division, average prison population in 1883–84, 113 of whom only 1 was a female

In 1856–57, and still in 1860–61, there was only 1 Government school in the District, the number of pupils in the former year being 69, and in the latter 71 In 1870–71 the number of Government and aided schools was 26, attended by 596 pupils Since 1872 when Sir George Campbell introduced his educational reforms, there has been a great increase in the number of schools aided and inspected by Government In 1873 the number of such schools was 135, with 3824 pupils By 1881–82 the number of inspected schools had increased to 1509, and the pupils to 32 855 The schools were classified as follows —1 High School, with 379 pupils 8 middle English schools, with 514 pupils, 15 middle vernacular boys schools, with 687 pupils, 1 middle vernacular girls school with 30 pupils, 11 upper primary schools, with 466 pupils 1226 lower primary boys' schools, with 26 974 pupils, 60 lower primary girls schools, with ... pupils, 40 *páthshalas* (indigenous Hindu schools), with 572 ... pupils, and 147 *maktabs* (Muhammadan indigenous schools), with ...3 pupils. Of the total of 32,855 pupils, 357 were girls either attending female schools or mixed schools with boys. Further pro... has since been made, and in 1883–84 the boys' primary schools

alone numbered 1778, which were attended by 41,736 pupils. For administrative purposes, the District is divided into 2 Sub-divisions—SUDHARAM and PHENI.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Noákhálí is damp, and the seasons are irregular. The sea-breeze, however, tempers the heat in the worst season. The average annual rainfall for the twenty-five years ending 1881 is 109·8 inches at Sudhárám, of which three-fourths fall between June and September. In 1883–84, the rainfall at the head-quarters station was 142·68 inches. The average mean daily temperature during the year is returned at 79·58° F., ranging from 96° to 52°. The endemic diseases of Noákhálí are fevers, remittent and intermittent, caused chiefly by malaria; diarrhœa, dysentery, rheumatism, and many skin affections. Cholera and small-pox occasionally occur in an epidemic form. In 1883–84, the total number of deaths registered in the District was returned at 14,312, or at the ratio of 17·43 per thousand. This, however, is far below the truth. There are three dispensaries in the District, at Sudhárám, Dulálbázár, and Farádnagar, which in 1883 afforded relief to 5310 in-door and out-door patients. [For further information regarding Noákhálí, see the *Statistical Account of Bengal*, by W. W. Hunter, vol. vi. pp. 237–350, and Appendix, pp. 525–532 (London, Trübner & Co., 1876); the *Bengal Census Report* for 1881; and the several Administration and Departmental Reports of the Bengal Government from 1880 to 1884.]

Noákhálí.—*Sadr* or head-quarters Sub-division of Noákhálí District, Bengal, lying between 22° 34′ and 22° 53′ N. lat., and between 90° 53′ and 91° 18′ E. long. It was formed in 1876, and has its head-quarters at Sudhárám. Area, 1298 square miles, with 1835 towns and villages, and 63,685 houses. Total population (1881) 578,797, namely, males 296,916, and females 281,881. Density of population, 446 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, 1·41; persons per village, 315; houses per square mile, 52·14; inmates per house, 9·09. Classified according to religion, there were in 1881—Hindus, 136,267; Muhammadans, 441,841; Christians, 585; Buddhists, 102; and 'others,' 2. This Sub-division comprises the 7 police circles of Sudhárám, Bámni, Sandwíp, Hátiá, Lakshmipur, Begamganj, and Rámganj. In 1884 it contained 7 civil and 8 criminal courts (including head-quarters courts), a regular police force of 241 men, and a rural police or village watch of 1485 *chaukídárs.*

Noákhálí.—Town in Noákhálí District, Bengal.—*See* SUDHARAM.

Noárband.—Outpost in Cachar District, Assam; about 18 miles south of Silchár. Noárband forms one of the chain of outposts which constitute the southern line of defence against the Lushais or Kukis. This line extends from Mainádhar on the Bárak river to Chátachura on the range separating Sylhet from Cachar. In 1883 it was garrisoned

by a detachment of the 12th Khelat-i-Ghilzai regiment of Native Infantry, with head quarters at Silchár. A large tea plantation is in the vicinity of the station.

Nobra.—Tract of country in Ladakh, Kashmír State, Northern India. A wild and elevated region on the south of the Karakoram ranges, and almost enclosed by the Shy Yok or river of Nobra, a tributary of the Indus. Elevation, 11,000 feet and upwards above sea level. Chief village, Deskit, lat. 34° 35′ N., and long. 77° 37′ E.

Noh.—*Tahsíl* and town in Gurgaon District, Punjab.—*See* NUH.

Nohar.—Fort in Baháwalpur State, Punjab.—*See* ISLAMGARH.

Nonai (or *Nanai*).—The name of two rivers in Assam. (1) Rises in the Bhután Hills, and, flowing due south through the extreme west of Darrang District, empties itself into the Brahmaputra almost opposite Gauháti. In recent years it has diverged widely from its old course, and overflowed a fertile tract of land. Beyond the frontier a bed of travertin has been found on its banks containing 90 per cent. of pure lime. In British territory, it is navigable by boats of 4 tons burden throughout the year.—(2) The other river of the same name has its course entirely within Nowgong District. It rises in the Mikir Hills, and, after receiving the Sálná and the Chápánála, falls into the KALANG, an important offshoot of the Brahmaputra, at the village of Hariá mukh. It is navigable for about nine months of the year.

Nong khlao.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 7389; revenue, £206. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Kin Singh. The natural products include potatoes, rice, millet, Indian corn, cinnamon, and caoutchouc. Cotton is woven and iron is made into implements of native use. Nong khlao was the first of the Khási States with which the British came into contact. In 1826, the *siem* entered into an agreement with certain Europeans to allow a road to be made across the hills into Assam Proper. But, in 1829, disputes arose, and two British officers then residing at Nong khlao were massacred, together with their Sepoy guard. After this disturbance was quelled, Nong khlao was chosen as the first head quarters of the Political Agent in the Khási Hills, shortly afterwards removed to Cherrá Punjí, and now at Shillong. In the neighbourhood of Nong khlao, a small cinchona plantation was started in 1867 by the superintendent of the Calcutta Botanical Gardens. The quinine-giving qualities of the bark were unfavourably reported upon, and the plantation has been abandoned, the locality and elevation being found unsuited to the growth of cinchona.

Nong krem.—Village in the State of Khyrim, in the Khási Hills, ...m, near which iron-ore is found in abundance, and of the best ...ity. The iron-ore is smelted on the spot, and the greater part is

sent down into the plains in lumps; a little is manufactured into implements of native use.

Nong-soh-phoh (or *Nobosohphoh*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 841; revenue, £13. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Ksan. Potatoes, rice, Indian corn, etc., are grown; and mats are manufactured.

Nong-spung.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 1506. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Santeu Singh. He derives his income from his commission as *mauzádár* in Kámrúp, and his share of the revenue of the Mathekar forest on the border of that District. The natural products include rice, millets, potatoes, honey, and beeswax. Iron-ore is smelted and manufactured into implements of native use.

Nong-stoin.—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 8473; revenue, £425. The presiding chief, whose title is *siem*, is named U Borson Singh. The natural products include rice, millets, *tezpát* or bay-leaves, caoutchouc, lac, and beeswax. The manufactures are pottery, cotton cloth, and iron implements. Limestone and coal are found. Nong-stoin is connected with Shillong by a fairly good bridle-path, 52 miles in length.

Nong-tar-men (or *Dwára Nong-tar-men*).—Petty State in the Khási Hills, Assam. Population (1881) 424; revenue, £25, almost entirely derived from dues on lime quarries. The presiding chief, whose title is *sardár*, is named U Jantrái. The natural products include oranges, betel-nuts, and *pán* leaves. A description of net is manufactured out of the fibre of the leaf of the pine-apple, and limestone is largely quarried.

North Lakhimpur.—Sub-division and village in Lakhimpur District, Assam.—*See* LAKHIMPUR.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—Lieutenant-Governorship and Chief Commissionership of British India, lying between 23° 52′ and 31° 7′ N. lat., and between 77° 5′ and 84° 40′ E. long. Area—North Western Provinces, 81,858 square miles; Oudh, 24,246 square miles: total area, 106,104 square miles. Population—North-Western Provinces, 30,781,947 in 1872, and 32,720,128 in 1881; Oudh, 11,220,950 in 1869 (no census of Oudh was taken in 1872), and 11,387,741 in 1881; total British population, 42,002,897 at the time of the previous census, and 44,107,869 in 1881. The native territory under the Lieutenant-Governorship, comprising the two States of Rámpur and Garhwál, has an area of 5125 square miles, with a population of 741,750 in 1881. Total area of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, British and Native, 111,229 square miles; total population, 44,849,619. The territory is bounded on the north by Chinese Tartary (Tibet), and on the north-east by the independent kingdom of

Nepal, on the east and south east by Champáran, Sáran, and Shahabad Districts of Lower Bengal, on the south by Hazáribagh District of Chutiá Nágpur, Rewa State, the Native States of Bundelkhand, and Ságar District of the Central Provinces, and on the west by the Native States of Gwalior, Dholpur, and Bhartpur, the Punjab Districts of Gurgáon, Delhi, Karnal and Ambala, and the States of Sirmur and Jabal, the Jumna river marking the boundary between the Punjab and the North Western Provinces The administrative capital and principal seat of the Lieutenant Governor is at ALLAHABAD The table on the next page gives the population of the North Western Provinces and Oudh in 1872 and 1881 according to Districts

Physical Aspects—The North Western Provinces and Oudh occupy, roughly speaking the whole of the basins of the Ganges and the Jumna (Jamuná), corresponding to Hindustan Proper of the Muhammadan chroniclers The tract comprising the valleys of the Gogra and the Gumti has long been artificially separated from the remainder of the great plain, as the kingdom of Oudh and although now under the administrative charge of the Lieutenant Governor at Allahábád, it remains, in respect of its courts, a distinct Chief Commissionership With this exception, the North Western Provinces include the whole upper portion of the wide Gangetic basin, from the Himálayas and the Punjab plain to the Vindhyan plateau and the rice fields of Behar Taken as a whole the Lieutenant Governorship consists of the richest wheat bearing country in India, irrigated both naturally by the rivers which take their rise in the northern mountains, and artificially by the magnificent system of canals and distributaries, which owe their origin to British enterprise It contains many of the most famous cities of Indian history, and it is studded at the present day with thriving villages, interspersed at greater distances with commercial towns Except during the hot weather months from May to October when the crops are off the fields, the general aspect is that of a verdant and well tilled but very monotonous plain only merging into hilly or mountainous country at the extreme edges of the basin on the south and north The course of the great rivers marks the prevailing south east slope of the land, which falls away from the Himalayas the Rajputána uplands, and the Vindhyan plateau, south eastwards towards the Bay of Bengal The chief natural features are thus determined by the main streams, whose alluvial deposits first formed the central portion of the North Western Provinces, while the currents afterwards cut for themselves deep channels through the detritus brought down by their own agency from the ring of hills or uplands on the north, south, and west

[*Continued on p* 357.

AREA and POPULATION of TERRITORY under the Administration of the LIEUT.-GOVERNOR of the NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.

UNDER BRITISH ADMINISTRATION.

Divisions.	Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Population (previous Census) 1872	Population. (Census of 1881.)	Increase or Decrease.
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES—					
Meerut (Merath),	Dehra Dún,	1,193	116,945	144,070	+ 27,125
	Saháranpur,	2,221	884,017	979,544	+ 95,527
	Muzaffarnagar,	1,656	690,107	758,444	+ 68,337
	Meerut (Merath),	2,379	1,276,167	1,313,137	+ 36,970
	Bulandshahr,	1,915	937,427	924,822	— 12,605
	Aligarh,	1,955	1,073,256	1,021,187	— 52,069
Rohilkhand,	Bijnaur (Bijnor),	1,868	737,153	721,450	— 15,703
	Moradábád,	2,282	1,122,357	1,155,173	+ 32,816
	Budáun,	2,002	934,670	906,451	— 28,219
	Bareli (Bareilly),	1,614	1,015,041	1,030,936	+ 15,895
	Sháhjahánpur,	1,746	951,006	856,946	— 94,060
	Pilibhit,	1,372	492,098	451,601	— 40,497
Agra,	Muttra (Mathura),	1,453	782,460	671,690	— 110,770
	Agra,	1,850	1,076,005	974,656	— 101,349
	Farukhábád,	1,719	917,178	907,608	— 9,570
	Máinpuri,	1,697	765,845	801,216	+ 35,371
	Etáwah,	1,693	668,641	722,371	+ 53,730
	Etah,	1,739	829,118	756,523	— 72,595
Jhánsi,	Jaláun,	1,469	404,447	418,142	+ 13,695
	Jhánsi,	1,567	317,826	333,227	+ 15,401
	Lálitpur,	1,947	212,661	249,088	+ 36,427
Allahábád,	Cawnpur,	2,370	1,156,055	1,181,396	+ 25,341
	Fatehpur,	1,639	663,877	683,745	+ 19,868
	Banda,	3,061	697,684	698,608	+ 924
	Allahábád,	2,833	1,396,241	1,474,106	+ 77,865
	Hamirpur,	2,289	529,137	507,337	— 21,800
	Jaunpur,	1,554	1,025,961	1,209,663	+ 183,702
Benares,	Azamgarh,	2,148	1,317,626	1,604,654	+ 287,028
	Mirzápur,	5,223	1,015,826	1,136,796	+ 120,970
	Benares,	998	794,039	892,684	+ 98,645
	Ghazipur,	1,473	873,299	1,014,099	+ 140,800
	Gorakhpur,	4,598	2,019,361	2,617,120	+ 597,759
	Basti,	2,753	1,473,029	1,630,612	+ 157,583
	Ballia,	1,144	686,127	924,763	+ 238,636
Kumáun,	Almora,	6,000	433,314	493,641	+ 60,327
	Garhwal,	5,500	310,288	345,629	+ 35,341
	Tarai,	938	185,658	206,993	+ 21,335
Total, North-Western Provinces,		81,858	30,781,947	32,720,128	+ 1,938,181
OUDH—			(1)		
Sitapur,	Sítápur,	2,251	932,959	958,251	+ 25,292
	Hardoi,	2,312	931,377	987,630	+ 56,253
	Kheri,	2,992	738,089	831,922	+ 93,833
Lucknow,	Lucknow,	990	778,195	696,824	— 81,371
	Unáo,	1,747	945,955	899,069	— 46,886
	Bara Banki,	1,768	1,113,430	1,026,788	— 86,642
Faizábád,	Faizábad,	1,689	1,024,652	1,081,419	+ 56,767
	Bahraich,	2,741	775,915	878,048	+ 102,133
	Gonda,	2,875	1,168,462	1,270,926	+ 102,464
Ra Bareli (Bareilly),	Rai Bareli (Bareilly),	1,738	989,008	951,905	— 37,103
	Sultánpur,	1,707	1,040,227	957,912	— 82,315
	Partábgarh,	1,436	782,681	847,047	+ 64,366
Total, Oudh,		24,246	11,220,950	11,387,741	+ 166,791
Total under British Administration,		106,104	42,002,897	44,107,869	+ 2,104,972

NATIVE STATES.[2]

mpur,	945	507,004	541,914	+ 34,910
tive Garhwál,	4,180	131,716	199,836	+ 68,120
Total Native States,	5,125	638,720	741,750	+ 103,030
GRAND TOTAL,	111,229	42,641,617	44,849,619	+ 2,208,002

nsus of 1869.

e small *iláhas* of Rámpura, Gursarái, and Gopálpura are under British administration. The family domains Mahárájá of Benares are included in the Districts of Mirzápur and Benares, containing 986 square miles 2,415 inhabitants

Continued from p. 355]

The extreme north western or Himálayan tract comprises the Native State of TEHRI or INDEPENDENT GARHWAL, together with the British Districts of DEHRA DUN, GARHWAL, and KUMAUN These mountainous regions include some of the wildest and most magnificent country in the whole range of the Himalayas, and among their snow-clad peaks the sacred streams of the Ganges and the Jumna take their rise Many famous temples and places of pilgrimage line the upper banks of the Ganges, and thousands of Hindus annually repair to the holy source from all parts of India Several of the higher peaks attain a height exceeding 20,000 feet, while Nandí Deví, on the borders of British Garhwál and Kumaun, rises to 25,661 feet above sea level Beautiful and romantic scenery abounds, especially near the lake and sanitarium of Naini Tal, and in the valley of Dehra Dún The economic value of the mountains is almost entirely confined to the growth of tea in Kumaun, and the export of forest produce to the plains A sparse Hindu population lies scattered among the mountain valleys, and in the extreme northern passes into Chinese Tartary the people belong to the Tibetan race

The Himálayan tracts under the Government of these Provinces form in themselves only a small portion of the immense geological region to which they belong, but they include part of one of the best and most widely known of Indian rock formations (the gneissic) The exterior ranges rise sometimes abruptly and sometimes gradually to a height of 7000 or 8000 feet After passing a second range, the elevation increases, till 10,000 and 11,000 feet are attained We then meet the peaks of the Trisul or trident mountain (23 382 feet), Nandí Deví (25,661 feet), and Nandi Kot (22,538 feet). These are all situated to the south of the great central axis of the Himalayas, which has a mean height of from 18,000 to 20,000 feet The rocks of the higher hills to the north, below the snowy range, have as yet received only cursory attention, being chiefly non fossiliferous slates and crystalline schists Of the formations in the snowy range, and beyond it in Chinese territory, we have little real knowledge

South of the Himálayas and the *bhábar* and *tarai* tracts, the SIWALIK range, a mass of detritus from the greater chain, slopes downward to the plain of the DOAB. It runs parallel to, and is separated from, the Himalayas by the valleys known as the eastern and western *duns* (DEHRA DUN DISTRICT), which, taken together, have a length of about 45 miles, and an average breadth of about 11 miles Under the name of Doáb ('Two Waters') is included the whole wedge of land enclosed between the confluent streams of the Ganges and the Jumna, comprising the Districts of SAHARANPUR, MUZAFFARNAGAR, MEERUT (Merath), BULANDSHAHR, ALIGARH, part of MUTTRA (Mathura), and

Himálayas. In Rohilkhand the *bhábar* is about 10 miles wide, with a fall of from 17 to 50 feet per mile, and is unsupplied with water, except in the rainy season Wells cannot be dug, but crops are raised by means of canal irrigation

South of the Jumna, the poor and irregular region known as BUNDELKHAND rises upward from the river bank to the edge of the Vindhyan plateau This part of the Province is intersected by Native States, and isolated portions of the surrounding principalities lie in many places in the midst of British territory The soil is generally rocky and unfertile, but considerable patches of rich black cotton soil are interspersed, the population is impoverished, scanty, and ignorant, the crops mainly depend on the amount and distribution of the annual rainfall, well water lies far below the surface, and, as a whole, Bundelkhand may rank as the poorest and most backward region of the North Western Provinces It comprises the British Districts of JALAUN, JHANSI, LALITPUR, HAMIRPUR, and BANDA The southernmost portion is much cut up by three spurs of sandstone and granite hills, running down from the Vindhyan system, but the northern half, near the bank of the great river, possesses a somewhat richer soil, and approximates more nearly in character to the opposite plain of the Doáb The three ranges are known as the Vindhya-chal, the Panná, and the Bandair hills They rise one behind the other Irrigation is partially provided for, but the greatest part of the work is not yet completed

Below the junction of the Jumna and the Ganges at Allahábád, the country begins to put on somewhat the appearance of the Bengal plains, and it also once more expands northward, east of the interven ing block of Oudh, to the foot of the Nepál Himálayas This tract may be conveniently considered under three portions, respectively separated by the Ganges and the Gogra

The tract south of the Ganges comprises part of ALLAHABAD, BENARES, and GHAZIPUR Districts, together with the extensive District of MIRZAPUR. The general features of trans Gangetic Allahábád and Mirzápur somewhat resemble those of Bundelkhand, but the lowlands along the river bank are more fertile, while the hill country is more mountainous and of greater extent.

The triangle between the Ganges, the Gogra, and the boundary of Oudh includes part of ALLAHABAD, JAUNPUR, half BENARES, part of GHAZIPUR, and the whole of AZAMGARH This fertile corner of the Gangetic plain lying wholly along the course of great rivers, possesses the densest population of the North Western Provinces, and consists of an almost unbroken sheet of cultivation, spreading from the alluvial lowlands over the wide upland which rises from the river banks. Numerous towns and villages cover its surface, and its capital city,

Himalayas. In Rohilkhand the *bhábar* is about 10 miles wide, w
fall of from 17 to 50 feet per mile, and is unsupplied with water, e
in the rainy season. Wells cannot be dug, but crops are raised
means of canal irrigation.

South of the Jumna, the poor and irregular region known as B
DELKHAND rises upward from the river bank to the edge of t
Vindhyan plateau. This part of the Province is intersected by Nat
States; and isolated portions of the surrounding principalities lie
many places in the midst of British territory. The soil is generall
rocky and unfertile, but considerable patches of rich black cotton so
are interspersed; the population is impoverished, scanty, and ignorant; the crops mainly depend on the amount and distribution of the annual rainfall; well water lies far below the surface; and, as a whole, Bundelkhand may rank as the poorest and most backward region of the North Western Provinces. It comprises the British Districts of JALAUN, JHANSI, LALITPUR, HAMIRPUR, and BANDA. The southernmost portion is much cut up by three spurs of sandstone and granite hills, running down from the Vindhyan system; but the northern half, near the bank of the great river, possesses a somewhat richer soil, and approximates more nearly in character to the opposite plain of the Doáb. The three ranges are known as the Vindhya-chal, the Panná, and the Bandair hills. They rise one behind the other. Irrigation is partially provided for, but the greatest part of the work is not yet completed.

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BENARES, is at once the ecclesiastical metropolis of Hinduism and the most populous town in the North-Western Provinces.

The trans-Gogra region, comprising the Districts of BASTI and GORAKHPUR, presents a somewhat wilder, submontane appearance, especially in its northern portion. Even here, however, cultivation widely prevails, and the general aspect is that of a well-tilled and very verdant plain.

For a particular physical description of OUDH, see the article upon that Province.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the GANGES (Gangá), the JUMNA (Jamuná), the GOGRA (Ghagrá), the GUMTI (Gomatí), and the RAMGANGA. The Ganges rises in Garhwál, and flows with a south-easterly course in these Provinces to its junction with the Gogra in the extreme east of Ballia, where it enters the plains of Bengal. All the drainage of these Provinces falls, directly or indirectly, into it. Its principal tributaries are the following:—Malin, Burh Gangá (in Meerut), Maháwa, Sot or Yar-i-wafadár, Burh Gangá (in Farukhábád), Káli, Rámgangá, Kaliána, Isan, Pandu, Jumna, Tons (in Allahábád), Jirgo, Barna, Gúmtí, Gangi, Basu, Sarju, Gogra. The Ganges Canal is drawn off from the river near Hardwár, and the Lower Ganges Canal at Narora in Bulandshahr District. The principal towns on its banks are Bijnaur, Garhmuktesar, Anúpshahr, Farukhábád, Kanauj, Bilhaur, Shiurájpur, Bithur, Cawnpur, Sálimpur, Gunir, Dalmau, Kara, Allahábád, Mirzápur, Chunár, Benares, Gházipur, Baxar, and Ballia. Since the construction of railways, the trade carried in the boats that navigate the Ganges consists only of heavy and bulky articles, timber and bamboos forming the most important items in the upper part of its course, and stone, grain, and cotton in the lower part.

The Jumna also rises in Garhwál, and flows almost parallel with the Ganges to Etáwah; from here it begins gradually to approach the Ganges till it falls into it three miles east of Allahábád. Its principal tributaries are the Maskarra, Katha, Hindan, Satr, Karwan, Utangan, Chambal (in Etáwah), Sind, Nan, Sengar, Nun, Rind, Sasur-Khaderi, Betwá, and Ken. It passes the towns of Kutána, Bághpat, Delhi, Shergarh, Mát, Muttra, Mahában, Farah, Agra, Firozábád, Batesar, Etáwah, Kalpí, Hamírpur, and Allahábád. The Jumna, after issuing from the hills, has a longer course in these Provinces than the Ganges; but it is not so large or so important a river, above Agra dwindling to quite a small stream in the hot weather. The trade borne on it now is inconsiderable.

The Gogra vies with the Ganges itself in volume, while it surpasses it in velocity. It rises in the Himálayas, and after receiving the waters of the Suheli, Sarju, Chauká, Dahávar, Muchora, and Báptí, empties itself into the Ganges at Chápra. The Gúmtí rises in Pilibhit

District, and, passing the city of Lucknow and the towns of Sultánpur and Jaunpur, flows into the Ganges near Sayyidpur, in Gházipur District Its tributaries are the Kathna, Sarayan, Sai, and Nand The Rámganga rises in the Dudutoli range of Garhwal, and, passing the town of Moradabad, falls into the Ganges opposite Kanauj

Lakes and Jhils—Kumaun has several mountain lakes which are known as Naini, Bhim, Nankúchiya, Málwa Sát, Khurpá, Khuriyá, etc, with the affix '*tál*' In the Doáb, in Oudh and especially in the Benares Division, *jhils* or marshes are numerous but none are of sufficient importance to deserve mention, except, perhaps the Surha *tal* in Ballia. In Bundelkhand and Mirzapur there are artificial reservoirs of water, formed by embanking the mouths of valleys These are attributed to the former rulers of the country The Bundelkhand lakes are now under the Public Works Department, and are capable of irrigating some extent of land

Canals—The irrigation canals of these Provinces are classified as—(1) productive, (2) ordinary, and (3) protective The first includes the Upper Ganges, the Lower Ganges, the Eastern Jumna, and the Agra Canals, the second, the Rohilkhand, the Dun and the Bijnor Canals, and the third, the Betwá Canal, which is still under construction For particulars regarding these canals, see the section on irrigation (pp 382–3), and also the separate articles on the canals themselves.

History—The earliest settlement of the Aryan race in India was probably in that portion of the Punjab which surrounds the upper waters of the Sarsuti or Saraswatí river, still regarded as one of the most sacred spots of Hindu pilgrimage From this centre, the fair skinned colonists spread over the neighbouring lands, subduing or exterminating the darker aborigines as they advanced. In the Doáb they founded the famous city of Hastinápur, the capital of the Lunar race, who also ruled at Muttra, Kási (or Benares), Magadha, and Behar The Solar race, on the other hand, gave princes to Ajodhya in Eastern Oudh, and founded colonies in many parts of the North Western Provinces The Vedas show us the Aryan settlements as almost confined to the upper basin of the Ganges and the Jumna, with a few outlying branches in Northern Behar, Western Bengal, the Vindhya Hills, and the Narbada (Nerbudda) valley, while the south of the Peninsula still remained almost entirely in the hands of the Dravidians. Throughout the whole historical period, the upper Gangetic valley retained its position as the chief seat of the Aryan supremacy in India, and afterwards the centre of the Muhammadan Empire at Delhi or Agra. Its history, being thus almost co-extensive with that of the central power for several centuries, can only be sketched in very brief outlines A more detailed history of OUDH appears under that article (*q v*)

Of the pre Aryan kingdoms, as of the pre Aryan races themselves,

our knowledge is limited to what can be gleaned, as to their extent and the degree of civilisation attained by them, from the few monuments that survive, in the shape of tanks, forts, and sites of ruined cities, which are only now beginning to receive attention. The modern representatives of the aboriginal races, the Bhars, Cherús, Kols, Kharwárs, Suiris, etc., are still found; but they have scarcely retained even the traditions of their ancient greatness. and a few of the wealthier members seek to secure social rank by claiming an Aryan (generally Rájput) origin.

Among the earliest traditions of the North-Western Provinces are those which cluster round the city of Hastinápur, on the Ganges, in Meerut District, the ancient metropolis of the Pándavas. Only a few shapeless mounds now mark the site where lived the Children of the Moon, the descendants of Bhárata, whose great war is chronicled in the Hindu epic of the *Mahábhárata*. The poem deals chiefly with the conflict between the five Pándavas, sons of Pándu and founders of Indraprastha (*see* DELHI CITY), and the Kauravas, who held the older capital of Hastinápur. These events, if not absolutely mythical, may be assigned to the 15th century B.C.

But the earliest empire in this portion of Upper India of which any certain monuments remain was that of Magadha, associated with the growth of Buddhism. The founder of the Buddhist creed, Sakya Muni, was born at Kápila in 598 B.C., and died at Kásia in Gorakhpur District in 543. After his death, the creed which he had preached spread rapidly over Hindustán, and became for many centuries the dominant religion of the Aryan race. When Alexander the Great invaded the Punjab in 327 B.C., he heard of the great empire of Magadha, whose capital lay at Palibothra, generally identified with the modern city of Patná in Bengal. A Nágá or serpent dynasty then ruled over Magadha, and the reigning prince at the date of Alexander's invasion bore the name of Nanda. His minister Chandra Gupta, the Sandrokottos of the Greeks, assassinated the Nágá prince and seized upon the throne for himself.

Seleukos, the successor of Alexander in his easternmost dominions, marched with a large army into the Ganges basin, and endeavoured to annex the whole of the modern Provinces to his own kingdom. Chandra Gupta, however, though defeated in the pages of Hellenic chroniclers, at least succeeded in actual fact so far as to preserve his territory intact, and to receive the philosopher Megasthenes as ambassador from Seleukos at his court in Palibothra. Under his grandson Asoka (260 B.C.) the empire of Magadha reached its highest development. The whole of Hindustán and the Punjab, together with portions of the Deccan and Afghánistán, were included within its boundaries; and the pillars or rock-

edicts containing the inscriptions of Asoka may be found at Peshawar, at Allahábád, at Delhi, at Kálsi, at Radhia and Mattiar in Tirhut, and on the Bay of Bengal Asoka was the first of his line to embrace the Buddhist faith, and he established it as the State religion throughout his wide dominions, with however, a liberal tolerance of the older religion. He was an eclectic monarch like his successor—*longo intervallo*—in the empire of Hindustán, the great Akbar, before Akbar arrogated to himself divine honours in his own person

After the decline of the Gupta dynasty, during the 2nd century B C, but scanty notices are found of the upper Ganges valley for several hundred years It would appear, however, that a Brahmanical reaction, headed apparently by the Rajputs, opposed the peaceful spread of the Buddhist creed, and that a long struggle took place between the rival religions Early in the 7th century A.D, Hiuen Tsiang, a Chinese Buddhist pilgrim, visited all the most sacred sites in India, and found the Hindu pantheon re established in many places, though the great kingdoms of Magadha and Kanauj still remained faithful to the teachings of Sakya Muni. Buddhism appears to have been finally stamped out by fire and sword throughout the whole of Hindustán about the 8th century, and the existing monuments bear marks of violent treatment from the hands of the reactionary party During this intermediate period, numerous petty principalities divided between them the valleys of the Jumna and the Ganges, but the most important were probably those of Magadha, Kanauj, Benares, Delhi, and Mithila

Continuous history begins for the North Western Provinces with the Muhammadan invasion Mahmud of Ghazni, in 1017 A D, was the first Musalmán leader who led his army beyond the limits of the Punjab into the plains of Hindustán He entered the sacred city of Kanauj, in Farukhábád District, whose ruins yet cover a very large area, and then sacked the holy shrines of MUTTRA, the birthplace of Krishna, still one of the most deeply venerated seats of the Hindu religion. But Mahmúd did not succeed in permanently conquering any part of the Gangetic basin, the Provinces of Multan and Lahore alone being incorporated with the dominions of Ghazni.

Muhammad Ghori (Shaháb-ud-dín), who overthrew the Ghaznivide dynasty, really founded the Musalmán power in Hindustán. At the period of his invasion (A.D. 1176), Prithwi Ráj, the Tomár Rajá of Delhi, was the leading ruler of Upper India. He had been long engaged in a struggle for supremacy with the Ráthor Rájá of Kanauj, and the rivalry of the Hindu princes gave an opportunity for aggression to the Musalmán rulers of the Punjab. Muhammad Ghori attacked Prithwi Ráj, and though at Tirouri (1191) defeated with

great loss, finally succeeded in establishing his power over the northern part of the Ganges valley. The Delhi Rájá was taken prisoner and massacred in cold blood; and Muhammad returned in triumph to Ghazní, leaving his viceroy, Kutab-ud-dín, to complete the conquest of the Hindu kingdoms. In 1193 A.D., the viceroy conquered KOIL (Alígarh) and MEERUT, and fixed the seat of the Muhammadan empire at Delhi, where it remained, with few intermissions, till the British conquest. In the next year, Muhammad himself returned to India, and defeated Jai Chand, Rájá of Kanauj, in the ravines of Etáwah District. This victory added Oudh to the Delhi Empire, and not only destroyed one of the great Indian monarchies, but extended the Muhammadan dominion into Behar, and opened up the way to Bengal. Muhammad followed up the advantage by taking the holy city of Benares, the metropolis of Hinduism, where he is said to have destroyed the suspiciously symmetrical number of 1000 temples. After the same battle, Kanauj had fallen; many of the Hindu towns were sacked, and the idols they contained broken; and Jai Chand himself, identified by his false teeth as he lay among the slain, perished as a Rájput ought. Thereupon the Ráhtors emigrated in a body to the desert of Rájputána, where they founded the kingdom of Márwár, and long kept alive the military spirit of the Hindu race.

Muhammad Ghori died by violence, at the hands of Ghakkar tribesmen, in 1206, having completely subdued the whole of Northern India, from the Himálayas to the Narbadá (Nerbudda), and from the Indus to the Bay of Bengal. His body was conveyed to Ghazní, where his nephew Mahmúd was proclaimed heir to his throne and accumulated treasures. But the kingdom at once broke up into several States. Kutab-ud-dín, Muhammad's viceroy, practically succeeded to his Indian dominions, and became the founder of the Slave dynasty. The account of that line, and of the succeeding Ghilzai and Tughlak dynasties, belongs rather to the general history of India than to the restricted annals of the North-Western Provinces. The Muhammadan power thenceforth remained supreme in the Ganges valley, which it ruled for the most part from the capital of Delhi. Under the Tughlak princes (1321–1411), however, the empire became disintegrated; and besides the more distant principalities founded by Musalmán chiefs in Málwá and Gujarát, a separate kingdom arose at JAUNPUR, within the limits of the North-Western Provinces themselves.

In 1394, Málik Sarwár Khwája, governor of Jaunpur for Muhammad Tughlak, assumed the independent title of Sultán-us-shark. The dynasty thus established maintained itself in power for 84 years, and constantly contested with the Delhi emperors the sovereignty of Kanauj and the other border Districts. Four years after the secession, in 1398, the Mughal conqueror Timúr invaded India. Crossing the

Indus at Attock, he marched through the Punjab to Delhi, under the walls of which he defeated the Sultan Muhammad Tughlak, who escaped to Gujarát. Timúr entered in state the imperial capital, which his fierce soldiery sacked, apparently against his will From Delhi he made his way through the Doáb, swept across Meerut District into Rohilkhand, recrossed the Ganges at Hardwár, and finally left the Provinces by Sahāranpur District. Wherever he passed, massacres and plunder marked his path Hindustán recovered but slowly from this terrible blow Muhammad Tughlak returned for awhile to Delhi, where he exercised a precarious authority for 12 years, until Khizr Khan, governor of the Punjab, seized upon the throne in 1414

The new dynasty, known as that of the Sayyids, ruled nominally as the viceroys of the Mughals, for 36 years, during which their sway became gradually restricted to the country immediately visible from the walls of Delhi Meanwhile the Jaunpur kingdom had risen to great power, and under Sultán Ibráhim (1401–40) became the leading state in the Ganges valley Ibrahím adorned his capital with magnificent architectural works, and several times strove to wrest KALPI, the key of the Jumna, from the Delhi Empire His son Mahmud succeeded in 1442 in his designs upon Kálpi, after which he marched eastward, reduced the fort of CHANAR, and invaded Orissa In 1450, Bahlol Lodi, of an Afghán family, deposed the last Sayyid Emperor, Alá ud dín, and made himself supreme at Delhi Two years later, Mahmúd of Jaunpur laid siege to Delhi itself, but Bahlol Lodi returned from the Punjab, raised the siege, and drove Mahmúd back to his own capital After 28 years of prolonged struggle between the two empires, Bahlol finally defeated Husain, the last of the Jaunpur Sultáns, in 1478, and the whole of the North Western Provinces were once more united to the Delhi dominions under the Lodi dynasty

In 1517, Ibráhim Lodi ascended the throne, and reigned for 9 years, with constant revolts on every side. At length, in 1526, Bábar marched against Ibrahím from Ferghána defeated him on the famous battle-field of Pánípat, captured Delhi, and founded the famous line of the 'Great Mughals' In the fiftieth year of his age and the fifth of his Indian reign, Bábar died at AGRA (1530), and his son Humáyun continued to reside in the same city Agra had already formed a favourite residence of the Lodi princes, and under the early Mughal Emperors it ranked as the capital of India. The city then stood on the left bank of the Jumna, not, as now, on the right. Humáyún's empire was almost restricted to the present Provinces by the revolt of his brother, who took possession of Kábul and the Punjab, while in 1539, the Emperor was driven back from the east to his capital, and in the next year was expelled from Agra itself by Sher Sháh, leader of the Bengal Afgháns. Humáyún, after a serious defeat at

Kanauj, fled first to Delhi, then to Lahore, and finally to Sind; while Sher Sháh made himself Emperor, and proceeded to carry out a magnificent scheme for the consolidation of all India. For this purpose he constructed a great military road from Bengal to the Indus, and improved the communications throughout his whole dominions. After a reign of five years, however, he was killed by the explosion of a magazine at the siege of KALINJAR, a hill fort in Bundelkhand. His two sons successively followed him on the throne, but failed to maintain their dynasty. In 1555, Humáyún returned from Kábul to Hindustán, which he found in a state of complete anarchy, and re-established himself as Emperor, placing his capital at Delhi. The Mughal dynasty, thus restored, continued to hold the empire of India till the rise of the Maráthá power.

During the flourishing period of the Mughals, the North-Western Provinces had no proper history of their own. The great Akbar, the reorganizer of the Mughal system, lived for the most part at Agra, where he built the magnificent fort in 1566, afterwards beautified by the palace of Jahángír, the famous Táj Mahal, and the great mosque of Sháh Jahán. In 1570, Akbar founded the city of FATEHPUR SIKRI, where he intended to place the seat of government; but after erecting several splendid architectural works, he again changed his plans, and finally died at Agra in 1605. It was not till the reign of Aurangzeb that Delhi became the permanent capital. Amongst other incidents of this prosperous age, may be mentioned the first construction of the Eastern Jumna Canal by Alí Mardan Khán, the engineer of Sháh Jahán; and the erection of many of the principal buildings which still remain in all the great towns of the Provinces.

With the death of Aurangzeb in 1707, began the rapid downfall of the Mughal power. The Maráthá reaction to the south, and the rise of the Sikh religion to the north-west, began to threaten the integrity of the Delhi empire, which received a severe shock in 1737 when Bájí Ráo marched to the gates of the capital; and a still more terrible reverse in the succeeding year, when Nádir Sháh crossed the Indus, and, after defeating the Emperor, plundered Delhi of a vast treasure, variously stated from 9 to 32 millions sterling. Within the North-Western Provinces, the process of disintegration had already begun. As early as 1671, during the lifetime of Aurangzeb, Chhatar Sál, a young Bundela chief, had headed an insurrection in his native hills, which continued intermittently throughout the next half-century. (*See* BANDA DISTRICT.) After a desperate struggle, Chhatar Sál finally accepted, in 1732, the aid of the Peshwá Bájí Ráo, who was then slowly working his way up through Khándesh and Málwá to Hindustán. About two years later, Chhatar Sál died, and bequeathed one-third of his dominions to the Peshwá, while the remainder was divided amongst his own descendants.

In or about 1720, the Rohillas, an Afghán tribe, made themselves similarly independent in the tract between the Ganges and the Himálayas now called Rohilkhand, and though they had often to struggle against the Delhi court, they maintained their freedom till they were conquered in 1774 by the Oudh Wazír, with the aid of British troops lent by Warren Hastings About the same time, Saadat Ali Khan laid the foundations of the kingdom of Oudh, though he and his successor remained nominally subject to the Emperor Shortly afterwards, Báji Ráo appeared upon the Jumna, and in 1736 sent his general to plunder the Doab, whence he was driven back by Saadat Ali The final supremacy of the Maráthas after the retirement of Nádir Sháh, and their establishment at Delhi in 1758, gave a show of unity to the Empire for awhile, but their defeat at Pánípat by Ahmad Sháh Duráni in 1761 drove them for a time from Hindustan and completed the dismemberment of the Mughal Empire

During the remainder of the century, the state of the Provinces was one of armed anarchy on every side, until the British stepped in for the restoration of order The Nawab Wazír of Oudh and the Rohillas achieved complete independence beyond the Ganges, Bundelkhand remained divided between the Maráthás and the native chiefs, Sindhia slowly superseded the power of the Peshwá, and became gradually supreme in Delhi, and the Doab was in turn overrun by the Bhartpur Jats, the Maráthás, the Rohillas, and every other of the contending parties, though remaining nominally under the rule of the authorities at Delhi

The British first came into connection with the North Western Provinces as they advanced along the valley of the Ganges from their foothold in Bengal In 1763, the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, with the phantom Emperor Sháh Alam, invaded Bengal They received a crushing defeat at Baxar (Baksár), which, as one of the decisive battles of India, advanced the British frontier from the Vindhyas to Allahábád The Emperor, with Balwant Singh, Rájá of Benares, joined the British camp By the subsequent agreement, Balwant Singh's estates were transferred from Oudh to the Company, but the Court of Directors disapproved of the transfer, and a year later the territory was restored to Oudh, the Nawab guaranteeing to keep the Rajá in possession In 1775, however, the new Nawáb, Asaf ud-daulá, ceded Benares, Jaunpur, and Ghazipur to the British, retaining Allahábád and Kora, which had been taken from the Emperor in the previous year, when the British sold them to Oudh The Nawab Wazír had agreed in 1773 to pay a fixed sum for each brigade of English troops maintained for his aid, and in 1797 this subsidy amounted to £760,000 a year Being always in arrear, the Nawab entered into negotiations for a cession of territory in lieu of subsidy, and in 1801 the treaty of Lucknow was signed, by

which the whole of the Oudh dominions in the Doáb, together with Rohilkhand, were made over to the British. The Nawáb of Farukhábád, who had thus become a tributary of the Company, ceded his territories in the same year in return for a pension.

As early as 1778 a British cantonment had been stationed at CAWNPUR, then in the midst of the Nawáb Wazír's territory; and around it a great commercial city has slowly grown up. In 1801, the British dominions in the present North-Western Provinces were thus confined to the Benares and Jaunpur tract, Rohilkhand, and the Lower Doáb, including Allahábád and Cawnpur. Next year, however, the treaty of Bassein was signed with the Peshwá, by which he agreed to cede certain territory in the Deccan to the British of the annual value of 26 *lákhs* of rupees (£260,000) for the maintenance of an English contingent. By this treaty the British obtained possession of Bundelkhand, though not without the use of force. Sindhia, though nominally the vassal of the Peshwá, resisted the execution of the treaty; and it became necessary to take up arms against him, both in Hindustán and in the Deccan. Lord Lake's campaign in 1803 against Sindhia's French general, Perron, brought the whole remaining portion of the North-Western Provinces under British rule. He took by storm ALIGARH, Sindhia's great arsenal in the Doáb. Thence he advanced upon Delhi, and within sight of the city defeated General Bourquien, another of Sindhia's partisan leaders, and three days later entered the Mughal capital in triumph. Reinstating the blind old Emperor, Alam Sháh, whom the Maráthás had long detained as a prisoner, he advanced upon Agra, which capitulated after a tedious siege. By the treaty of Sirji Arjangáon, which followed these brilliant successes and concluded the campaign, Sindhia agreed to cede all his territories in the Doáb, together with his fiefs on the western bank of the Jumna. The new Districts thus acquired were at once amalgamated with those previously granted by the Nawáb Wazír of Oudh, and formed into 'the Ceded and Conquered' Provinces—a title that long remained in familiar use.

After the peace with Sindhia, war with Holkar, another chief of the Maráthá confederacy, followed. It began disadvantageously for the Company, part of whose troops were annihilated as they advanced into Central India. Holkar directed his march on Delhi, but was diverted, and proceeded to lay waste the Doáb. Overtaken by General Lake at Fatehgarh, he was routed and beaten back across the Jumna, only to learn that the rest of his forces had been dispersed at Díg. Then followed the unsuccessful siege of Bhartpur, the famous raid of the Pathán freebooter, Amír Khán, into Rohilkhand, and the renewed pursuit of Holkar by General Lake. A peace was concluded in 1805 by which Gohad and Gwalior were restored to Sindhia, and the Com-

pany became bound not to interfere between him and the Rájput chiefs The war with Nepál ensued, which terminated in 1816 with the treaty of Segauli, and the cession to the Company of the Himálayan Districts of Kumáon and Garhwal Next came the outbreak of the Pindári or last Maratha war, closing in 1818 with a peace by which the Narbada territories under the Rajá of Nágpur were added to the North Western Provinces The Delhi territory remained the personal appanage of the Mughal royal family, under the charge of a Resident, until 1832, when it passed to the direct government of the Company

For the first thirty years after annexation, the North Western Provinces were administered by the same government as that of Bengal, a portion of the Bengal Board of Revenue being deputed to conduct the duties of that branch, generally at Allahábád, but sometimes on circuit elsewhere in the North Western Provinces In 1833, the 'Act for effecting an arrangement with the East India Company and for the better government of His Majesty's Indian territories sought to divide the Presidency of Bengal into two governments, the north western portions going to form the Presidency of Agra Sir Charles Metcalfe was appointed Governor, but this scheme of a fourth Presidency fell through, and in 1835 an Act was passed suspending the Act of 1833, and authorizing the Governor General in Council to nominate a Lieutenant Governor of the North Western Provinces The new Provinces included the area known now under the name of the North Western Provinces, excepting the Jhansi Division (Jhánsi, Jalaun, Lálitpur), but with the addition of Delhi and the Ságar or Narbada territories

The capital was fixed at Agra, where in 1844 the local Board of Revenue and Appellate Civil and Criminal Courts were transferred from Allahábád The Sudder Courts (revenue and judicial chief offices) have since been transferred to Allahábád, where costly High Court buildings have been provided In 1853 Jhánsi was added to the North Western Provinces, and Nágpur was separately administered by a Commissioner Oudh was annexed in 1856 in consequence of the continued misgovernment of the King (which title had been assumed by a former Nawab) The new Province of Oudh was at once placed under a Chief Commissioner, and a system of administration similar to that constituted in the Punjab was introduced The next year (1857) saw the outbreak of the Mutiny. During the Mutiny (1857–58) Lord Canning removed the seat of government of the North Western Provinces from Agra to Allahábád, which has ever since formed the head-quarters of the Lieutenant-Governor, and of all the chief offices of the government. Delhi, the historical metropolis of Northern India, was made over to the Punjab after the Mutiny of 1857.

The first half-century of the British occupation was a period of peaceful progress. Trade and agriculture rapidly developed. Roads were pushed from end to end of the territory; the Eastern Jumna, Ganges, and Lower Ganges Canals were constructed for the irrigation of the Doáb; the predatory chiefs of Bundelkhand and the Gúrkhas were restrained; and the chief cities began once more to revive from the lethargy and decay of the 18th century. The Doáb especially rose into a great agricultural and commercial tract, filled with new and growing cities, such as Cawnpur, Meerut, Alígarh, Rúrki (Roorkee), and Saháranpur.

This peaceful period was interrupted by the Mutiny of 1857, which first broke out in the North-Western Provinces, and produced more disastrous effects in this tract than in any other part of India. The earliest rising took place at MEERUT, on May 10, 1857. Having massacred their European officers, the mutinous cavalry escaped to Delhi. There they were joined by the infantry, who proclaimed the restoration of the Mughal Empire; and forthwith all Hindustán was in a blaze. Within two months, most of the North-Western Provinces and all Oudh were in the hands of the revolted leaders. The massacre at CAWNPUR, the rising at ALLAHABAD, and the various local mutinies, will be found detailed at length under their proper headings. In September, Delhi was recaptured. Lucknow fell in the following March, and within the course of the year tranquillity was restored.

Since the repression of the rebellion, the principal event of importance in the Provinces has been the rapid development of the railway system, which is revolutionizing the commercial condition of the country and opening fresh outlets for the agricultural wealth of Rohilkhand and the Doáb.

The territorial changes since the Mutiny have not been numerous. In 1858, the Divisions of Delhi and Hissár were transferred to the Punjab. In January 1859, Lord Canning's Foreign Secretary, Sir G. F. Edmonstone, was appointed to the Lieutenant-Governorship, and during his rule the new government of the Central Provinces was created out of the Ságar and Narbadá territories. Sir G. F. Edmonstone was succeeded in 1863 by the Honourable E. Drummond, and he again in 1868 by Sir W. Muir. While Sir W. Muir was Lieutenant-Governor, the Districts of Ajmír (Ajmere) and Merwára were detached from the North-Western Provinces, and taken directly under the Government of India. Sir J. Strachey succeeded Sir W. Muir in 1874, and after two years was followed by Sir George Couper, the Chief Commissioner of Oudh, who soon after became governor of the combined territories. Sir George Couper retired in 1882, and was succeeded by Sir Alfred Lyall, K.C.B., the present Lieutenant-Governor.

Population.—The North-Western Provinces with Oudh contained in

1881 a population of 44,107,869, dispersed over an area of 106,104 square miles, density of population, 416 persons to the square mile The territory thus contains a denser population than any country of Europe excepting Belgium (485), Saxony (438) and England and Wales (446), if the Himalayan tract be excluded, and only the teeming Gangetic valley be considered, the density of population exceeds that of England taken by itself (484) In some parts of the Gangetic valley the average per square mile is enormous, in Benares it is 894, in Ballia, 808, in Jaunpur, 778, in Lucknow, 704. No less than twenty one out of forty nine Districts contain over 500 persons to the square mile The least populated tracts are the unhealthy Tarái (221) Mírzápur (217), *Jhánsi (212)*, Lálitpur (128), *Dehra Dun (121)*, *Almora (82)*, *and* Garhwál (63)

There have been three enumerations of the population of the North Western Provinces prior to the Census of 1881—namely in 1853, 1865, and 1872 The only previous Census of Oudh was taken in 1869 Considering the North Western Provinces apart from Oudh, in 1872 the Census returned there a population of 30 781 947, in 1881 the Census over the same area returned a population of 32,720 128 Taking Oudh apart from the North Western Provinces, the figures are, 11,220,950 for 1869, and 11 387 741 for 1881 The total population of the North Western Provinces with Oudh in 1881 had increased since the previous Census by 2 104 972

The details of the Census of 1881 for the North Western Provinces and Oudh together may now be given Area 106 104 square miles Population 44,107,869 (males 22 912,556 and females 21 195 313), number of towns and villages, 105 421, number of houses 6 866 503 From these the following averages are deducible —Persons per square mile, 416, towns and villages per square mile, 1, houses per square mile, 65, persons per house, 6 4

Classified according to sex, the native population in 1881 amounted to 22,888 012 males and 21 185 448 females, thus yielding a percentage of 51 9 and 48 1 respectively The European element was represented by 34 409 persons, of whom 24 544 were males and 9865 females Classified according to age there were returned, of the entire population, under 15 years—males, 8,735 283, females, 7,661,764 total children, 16,397,047, or 37 2 per cent of the total population above 15 years—males, 14,177,273, females, 13,553,549, total adults, 27,710,822, or 62 8 per cent

Religion and Caste —The great mass of the people are still Hindus, although the followers of *Islám were for long established as the* dominant race. The Census of 1881 returned 38,053 394 Hindus, or 86 3 per cent., as against 5,922,886 Muhammadans, or 13 4 per cent Jains in 1881 numbered 79,957, Christians, 47,664, Pársís, 114,

7726 Eurasians or persons of mixed race, 70 Armenians, and 13,255 natives. Classified by sect, the Christian population of the North Western Provinces and Oudh in 1881 is thus sub-divided — Church of England, 26,048 (including 4606 natives), Roman Catholics, 9384 (including 1782 natives), Presbyterians, 3443 (including 1247 natives), Methodists, 2447 (including 1500 natives), Baptists, 677 (including 276 natives), Lutherans, 482 (including 475 natives), and other miscellaneous sects, 5183 (including 3378 natives). Almost the entire male adult European population (18,117) are employed in the army, only a few (975) being in the civil employ of Government. Most of the Eurasian males are employed on the various railway works.

The Jains are regarded locally as a sect of Hindus. The few Buddhists are composed of Chinamen employed in tea gardens, or immigrants from beyond the Tibetan border. The Sikhs belong to the Punjabi regiments quartered in the Provinces; and a good many of them are in the police force. The Brahmos are all Bengális; among the people of the Provinces they are looked upon as Hindus.

Occupations.—The Census of 1881 distributes the adult male population of the North Western Provinces and Oudh into the following six main classes:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind, and members of the learned professions, 379,008; (2) domestic class, including lodging-house and inn keepers, 107,061; (3) commercial class, including merchants, bankers, carriers, etc., 382,718; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including gardeners, 10,587,739, or nearly 70 per cent. of the whole adult male population; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 2,429,788; and (6) indefinite class, comprising male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation, 1,465,890. There were returned as of no occupation, 7,560,352. Total male population, 22,912,556. Of the adult female population nearly 60 per cent. (4,547,183) are returned under the agricultural class, while 26 per cent., or 2,000,086, are grouped under the heading industrial.

Among the adult male population, Hindu priests number 81,318; Muhammadan *mullas*, 569; physicians and surgeons, 11,857; musicians, dancers, etc., 18,608; authors and editors, 18; painters 206; teachers, 17,632; astrologers, 509; innkeepers, 8706; money-lenders, 37,900; shopkeepers, 16,641; pedlars, 24,418. Of the enti mercantile class, more than half are money-lenders or their su ordinates and clerks. Of the industrial classes, workers in text fabrics (985,226) are by much the largest; artisans and mechan number about 600,000. There are 71 persons returned as newspa proprietors; booksellers, 594; bookbinders, 424; printers, 16

Jews, 101; Buddhists, 103; Brahmos, 6; and Sikhs, 3644. Distributed by caste, the Hindus are thus sub-divided—Bráhmans, 4,655,204; Rájputs, 3,027,400; Baniyás (traders), 1,204,130; Ahírs, 3,584,185; Chamárs, 5,360,548; Kahárs, 1,209,350; Kúrmís, 2,075,026; Lodhs, 1,000,599; Pásís, 1,033,184; Telís, 685,123; Sonárs, 247,485; Málís, 236,355; Ahars, 257,670; Barhais, 497,207; Bhangís, 426,243; Bhars, 349,113; Bháts, 129,921; Bhuinhars, 188,080; Bhurjís, 301,086; Dhánuks, 119,341; Dhobís, 518,872; Doms, 176,615; Gadárias, 860,220; Gosáins, 118,259; Gújars, 269,036; Játs, 672,068; Kachhís, 1,941,663; Kalwárs, 345,365; Kathiks, 152,030; Káyasths, 513,495; Korís, 843,422; Kumbhárs, 633,989; Lohárs, 496,547; Lonias, 378,619; Mallahs, 612,905; Náis, 639,957; Tágas, 101,615; Tambulís, 209,777; other Hindu castes, 1,981,690. As regards the four great Hindu caste divisions, the Bráhmans are most numerous in the Benares, Allahábád, and Agra Divisions, their proportion being lowest in Jhánsi. The Rájputs are found chiefly in the Benares and Agra Divisions. The Baniyás or trading caste reside chiefly in the Upper Doáb, Agra, Meerut, and Allahábád; they confine themselves to the towns and large villages, where they act as shopkeepers, bankers, and petty money-lenders. Among the low castes, the Chamárs, formerly serfs and now the lowest menial class, rank first in point of numbers, with 5,360,548 persons. The Ahírs, cultivators and herdsmen, were returned at 3,584,185; the Kúrmís at 2,075,026; the Kahárs at 1,209,350; and the Játs at 672,068. Nearly three hundred less numerous castes find separate mention in the Census Report; and many of these are again minutely sub-divided into clans and minor divisions.

The Musalmáns muster strongest in the Rohilkhand, Benares, and Meerut Divisions, which contain more than half (3,383,971) the entire Muhammadan population of the Lieutenant-Governorship. In the Allahábád and Agra Divisions they are also numerous, forming a proportion of 10·5 and 9·6 per cent. respectively. In the Jhánsi Division, however, comprising the wilder parts of Bundelkhand, the proportion sinks to 4·7 per cent. The Hindu religion has everywhere left its impress, not only upon the aboriginal tribes and castes, but also upon the invaders; and it frequently happens that the descendants of Muhammadan converts, who may have embraced the faith of Islám at the edge of the sword, retain many Hindu customs, and adhere to purely Hindu observances and ceremonies. The converse is also true, and many low-caste Hindus embrace the usages if not the tenets of Islám. Among the Muhammadan population by race, as apart from religion, are included the following—Rájputs, 122,055; Gújars, 39,858; Játs, 10,401; Tágas, 20,070; and Mewátis, 26,666.

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librarians, 8. Of the half million males engaged in the cotton manufacture, 367,774 are weavers, 62,044 cotton-cleaners, and 3367 cotton-spinners. Barbers are an important class (172,418), as are also washermen (103,512) and bangle-sellers (26,678). Retailers of alcohol number 10,038; of tobacco, 46,897; of *bhang*, *gánja*, or other intoxicants, 3019; of betel, 19,752; and of opium, 522. Bamboo sellers, who supply the *lathi*, or iron-tipped club, which is the universal weapon of the Provinces, number 78,883. The workers in minerals are returned at over half a million. The beggars and professional mendicants of both sexes amount to 360,078 persons in all. Over 700,000 women are employed in the cotton manufacture.

Town and Rural Population.—Of the 105,421 towns and villages in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 46,096 contained in 1881 less than two hundred inhabitants; 34,817 between two and five hundred; 16,690 between five hundred and one thousand; 5941 between one and two thousand; 1099 between two and three thousand; 483 between three and five thousand; 192 between five and ten thousand; 51 between ten and fifteen thousand; 20 between fifteen and twenty thousand; 18 between twenty and fifty thousand; and 14 upwards of fifty thousand. One city has more than two hundred thousand inhabitants (Lucknow); in England there are six. Five have populations ranging from one to two hundred thousand (Benares, Agra, Cawnpur, Allahábád, Bareilly); in England there are seven.

Taking the Lieutenant-Governorship as a whole, less than one-tenth (9·7 per cent.) of the whole population may be described as urban or dwelling in towns. The urban population is highest in the Meerut Division (15·57) and lowest (1·57) in Bareilly. Bijnaur District has in particular many flourishing little towns. The average density per acre of persons on a town site varies between 70 and 90. The density in London is 71, and Liverpool 94. If the mean density of the whole urban population be taken, and cantonments be omitted, there is a population of 3,639,706 persons living on a town area of 129,261 acres, or a mean density of 28·2 persons to the acre. In England the urban mean density is 6·34 persons to the acre. In mixed European and native towns the density falls low, owing to the space taken up by the compounds or gardens of the Europeans. In Meerut the density is 10 persons to the acre of town site. Most of the people are gathered into small villages, but as many as 282 towns have a population exceeding 5000.

No other part of India contains so large a proportion of celebrated cities, though late changes have transferred Delhi, the most famous of all, to the Punjab. Fourteen towns possess populations exceeding 50,000, namely—(1) Lucknow, the capital of Oudh, 261,303; (2) Benares, on the Ganges, one of the most sacred cities of the Hindus, 199,700; (3) Agra, on the Jumna, once the

Mughal capital, and the former provincial head-quarters, 160,203, (4) ALLAHABAD, at the junction of the two great rivers, the modern administrative centre and a great commercial town, 148,547, (5) CAWNPUR, a creation of British rule and an important military cantonment, 151,444, (6) BARELI (Bareilly), the capital of Rohilkhand, 113,417, (7) MEERUT (Merath), the commercial centre of the Upper Doab, and a principal military station, 99,565, (8) FARUKHABAD, 62,437, (9) SHAHJAHANPUR, 74,830, (10) MIRZAPUR, 56,378, (11) MORADABAD, 67,387, (12) SAHARANPUR, 59,194, (13) ALIGARH, 61,730, and (14) GORAKHPUR, 57,922 Eighteen towns have a population between 50,000 and 20,000 Other places of interest in the Provinces are—the hill sanitaria of NAINI TAL, LANDAUR, and MUSSOOREE (Masuri), the sacred town of HARDWAR, the ruined sites of KANAUJ and HASTINAPUR, Akbar's deserted capital of FATEHPUR SIKRI, and the ancient temples and fortresses of MAHOBA and KALINJAR Most of the great towns lie along the banks of the Ganges or the Jumna

Agriculture—Out of a total area of 106,104 square miles in the North Western Provinces and Oudh, 52,192 square miles (33,402,880 acres) were returned in 1884 as under cultivation, 20,164 as waste but *cultivable*, and 33,748 as *uncultivated waste* The Census of 1881 returned the area under crops at 34,586,880 acres, and the male agriculturists at 10 506,868, giving an average of 3 29 cultivated acres to each male adult agriculturist, namely, 3 43 acres in the North Western Provinces Proper, and 2 99 acres in Oudh In Hamirpur and Jalaun Districts the average rose above 7 acres No part of India bears finer or more luxuriant crops than the North Western Provinces and Oudh, and the natural fertility has been much increased by a magnificent series of irrigation works. The course of tillage comprises two principal harvests—the *kharif* or autumn crops, sown in June and reaped in October or November, and the *rabi* or spring crops, sown in October or November and reaped in March or April The *hewant*, a subsidiary third harvest, is reaped in December A fourth subsidiary harvest, the *zaid*, is reaped in May The great agricultural staple is wheat, but millets and rice are also largely cultivated The chief commercial crops include indigo (in the eastern Districts and Rohilkhand), cotton, sugar, opium, oil seeds, and tea Rice and sugar cane grow chiefly in the river valleys or in irrigated fields, wheat is raised on the uplands by the aid of canals and wells, millets and cotton grow on the drier soils, while tobacco, potatoes, vegetables, and other rich crops occupy the manured plots in the neighbourhood of the villages. The mode of tillage is simple, scarcely differing from that in vogue during the earliest period of which the Vedas give information.

General Remarks.—Of the total area, less than half is returned as fit for cultivation, including all the poorer kinds of soil. In many Districts the uncultivated land does not exceed the quantity required for grazing. The true waste or uncultivable area comprises rivers, lakes, village sites, and roads. Large areas of *úsar* (or land which a saline efflorescence renders unfit for the production of anything but special kinds of coarse grass) are to be found in most of the Districts of the Doáb, said to be caused by percolation from the canals. The rainfall in the North-Western Provinces averages over the whole area 25 inches in the year. But it is almost entirely confined to three or four months, and a very general resort to artificial irrigation is thus rendered necessary. If the crops sown and reaped in the rainy season be excluded, 2 acres out of every 5 in the North-Western Provinces are irrigated, more than one-half from wells. The remainder depends in about equal proportions on canals and on natural sources of irrigation, such as tanks and streams. Large areas, including nearly all the land immediately round the village sites, bear two crops in the year, and as many as three are not unknown. Sugar is exceptional, as it occupies the field nearly the whole year, being put down in April, and not fully reaped till the end of February. The common practice of mixing several crops in one field makes it difficult to give an accurate representation of the area under each.

The whole country is parcelled out into villages, each village being a proprietary unit, and containing perhaps many inhabited sites. The land is divided by the natives themselves into three circles, according as it approaches or recedes from the central homestead, and receives much manure, only a moderate supply, or none at all. The distinction is very real, and easily recognised by a trained eye. The amount of manure available is very limited, and the continued fertility of the soil, in spite of constant cropping, is difficult to explain. The condemnation often passed on native methods of tillage is too sweeping. The implements, it is true, are of the rudest kind, but the perseverance of the cultivator compensates in a great measure for the imperfections of his tools. Although a single ploughing may merely scratch the surface, the twelve or fifteen ploughings which are commonly given for the more valuable crops produce a tilth which for depth and fineness might be envied by any English market gardener, and is superior to ordinary cultivation in Europe.

Wheat.—The most important of the food-grains is wheat, and of recent years the North-Western Provinces and Oudh have become prominent rivals with the other wheat-producing and wheat-exporting countries of the world. The area under wheat in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in 1882–83 was 3,567,586 acres, the principal centres of cultivation being Saháranpur, Meerut, and Muzaffarnagar

Districts The total export of wheat increased from 2,922,573 *maunds* in 1879-80 to 4,599,140 *maunds* in 1882-83

Other Food Staples—Rice is largely grown, but the imports as a rule balance the exports The imported rice comes from Calcutta, the exported rice goes to Rajputana and the Punjab This staple is mostly grown in the sub-Himalayan region, and in the eastern Districts of the Provinces Area under rice in 1882-83—2,876,210 acres, exports, 569,196 *maunds*, imports, 795,535 *maunds* Barley is seldom grown alone, except in the Benares Division, in Rohilkhand it is generally mixed with wheat, and in Agra and Allahábád with gram It requires less manure and irrigation than wheat. Barley was sown, either alone or with wheat and pulse, over 4¾ million acres in 1882-83 Maize is largely cultivated everywhere except in Bundelkhand It requires good soil with plenty of moisture About ¾ million acres were under maize in 1882-83 Millets and pulses, comprising *joár*, *bájra*, *urd*, and *moth*, were raised on 2½ million acres in 1882-83 Two or more of these are sown on one field, a method that forms the cultivator's insurance against total loss, as the chances are some one of the crops will come up As a rule, the heads of *joár* and *bájra* are cut off and carried to the threshing floor before the stalks are cut Gram, for food, as well as fodder for cattle, is sown with wheat and barley or alone, over 4 million acres It is a hardy crop.

Of Non-food Crops, cotton forms perhaps the most important staple, being grown on 5 8 per cent of the total cultivated area, and 11 per cent of the area under autumn crops. It is cultivated most extensively in Alígarh, Muttra, Agra, and Bánda Districts, where it occupies generally over 10 per cent of the total cultivated area. Area under cotton in 1882-83, 403,170 acres The oil-seeds are rape mustard, linseed, and *til*, the first three grown for the spring and the last for the autumn harvest Cotton seeds are seldom used for oil, though very generally for fattening cattle, much in the same way as oil-cake is used in Europe The export of oil seeds in 1882-83 was 4 667,058 *maunds* The principal sugar cane growing tracts are Saharanpur, Muzaffarnagar, Meerut, Rohilkhand, and the portion of the Benares Division lying between the Ganges and Gogra It is a curious fact that the cane is no longer an important crop in the Districts south of the Jumna, although the presence of old disused stone mills points to sugar having been formerly manufactured there Area under sugar-cane in 1882-83, 883,323 acres.

Special Crops—Tea—The cultivation and manufacture of tea in the North-Western Provinces is confined to the sub-montane tracts in Kumaun, Garhwál, and Dehra Dún Two indigenous plants (Osyris Nepalensis and Eurya asp.), very similar in appearance

to tea, are found growing wild in many of the Himálayan valleys, and were mistaken by early travellers for the genuine Thea viridis. This, however, was first introduced from China in 1835, at the same time that seeds were distributed by the Government in Assam and other parts of India. Until 1842, the cultivation was conducted by the Government in a few experimental plots; but in that year, a party of 9 Chinese, with the necessary requisites of manufacture, were brought from Assam to Almorá. The tea they manufactured was favourably reported on in the London market; and from 1843 to 1855 the business was continued, as a department of Government enterprise, under the supervision of Dr. William Jameson. Many mistakes were made at the beginning in the choice of soils and sites, and disappointment and loss resulted to several private planters who followed in the steps of the Government. But tea-planting in Kumáun and Dehra Dún has now become a staple industry, though on a smaller scale than was originally anticipated, or than has been attained in the more favoured valleys of Assam. The produce is chiefly manufactured into green tea, which finds a sale across the frontiers in Central Asia; but some is exported to England.

In 1877 there were altogether, in the Districts of Kumáun and Garhwál, 48 gardens, owned by 25 proprietors, of whom only two were natives; in 1883-84 there were 53 gardens in these two Districts, with a total area of 3043 acres. The total yield in 1877 was 333,747 lbs., of which the greater part was sold to Central Asian merchants; in 1883-84 the total yield was 433,269 lbs. In 1871 there were 19 gardens in Dehra Dún, of which 7 were owned by natives; the area under plant was 2024 acres; the yield was 300,000 lbs., valued at £17,000. In 1877 the number of gardens in Dehra Dún was 16, and the yield 578,373 lbs.; in 1883-84 the number of gardens was 34, and the yield 768,878 lbs. The area under tea in Dehra Dún in 1884 was 4775 acres. In 1877-78, the total amount of tea despatched by rail from the North-Western Provinces to Calcutta was 800,000 lbs., almost entirely from the railway stations of Sahâranpur, Moradábád, and Bareli. By 1883-84, the rail-borne exports of tea from the North-Western Provinces had increased to nearly 1,200,000 lbs., of the value of over £81,000.

The total capital sunk in tea-planting is estimated at about £500,000, and the enterprise is almost entirely in the hands of Europeans. In Dehra Dún the yield is returned at nearly 300 lbs. to the acre; and although information from Kumáun is incomplete, it would be safe to assume the total annual produce in the Provinces at about 2,000,000 lbs., of which between a half and three-fourths is made into green tea for the Central Asian market. Up to the middle of 1879,

an active demand carried off the whole crop at remunerative prices. Since then the demand for Central Asia has entirely ceased but it is hoped that this collapse may be only temporary. Kashmir offers a promising opening. Tibet, the nearest and most natural market, is entirely closed by the avarice of the local officials who make a large profit on the imports from China.

Indian tea hardly commands half the price of Chinese for the Central Asian market. But it is noteworthy that while the former remains steady at about £6 per *maund*, the price of the latter has fallen from £15 in 1878 to £11 per *maund* in 1882. The difference still existing as to the price is probably due to a prejudice which may disappear in time. There is also some trade in black tea with Calcutta but this too shows signs of falling off.

Tobacco.—The dried leaves of Nicotiana tabacum and Nicotiana rustica ought, perhaps, to be included under raw products but the drying process of the ordinary peasant is a species of manufacture and the product may fairly be regarded as a manufactured staple. The crop is generally cultivated in small patches of highly manured land in the neighbourhood of towns and villages. The aggregate of these patches in the whole of the Provinces amounts to less than 100,000 acres, of which total about two thirds are in Oudh. The curing is generally a simple process. The leaves are cut and allowed to dry on the ground for a while. They are then arranged in heaps with their apices towards the centre and the stalks outwards. Brackish water is sprinkled over them and fermentation ensues. This goes on for a period varying from three days to a month after which the leaves being found pliable, are made up into ropes and coils and dried for sale. The tobacco factory at Ghazipur established in 1881 by a European firm, is worked on land rented at an advantageous rate from the Government. An effort is being made to grow superior kinds of obacco, and to work up the produce after the American system of uring, which has already met with a fair degree of success. The tal out turn in 1881 was 326,000 lbs., or an average of 675 lbs. per ltivated acre.

Opium.—The inspissated juice of the poppy (Papaver somniferum) a Government monopoly in these Provinces as well as in Bengal. cultivation is confined to certain Districts none being grown in Doáb north of Aligarh, or in Rohilkhand north of Moradabad. In njahánpur, Farukhabad, Etawah and Mainpuri, and in the Districts e Benares Division, it is extensively grown as also in Oudh. The total ncial area amounts to about 250,000 acres, or 6 per cent of the cultivated area, and 1.3 per cent. of that portion of it under crops. Cultivation is carried on upon a system of advances, and nds itself to the cultivators by the ease with which these are

procured, together with the comparative certainty of a fair crop and a remunerative price.

The Government factory for the manufacture of the opium of commerce is at Gházipur, in the centre of the best poppy-growing region. The total exports of opium from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh amounted to 1168 tons in 1879, and 2124 tons in 1881.

Forests, Jungle Products, etc.—In 1883, the area of demarcated forest reserve was 3339 square miles, about one-third of it lying in Oudh. The main forest products of the Provinces are timber, gums, resins, dyes, and tans, but none of them are produced in sufficient quantities to form important articles of export. The forests, excepting small tracts in Jhánsi, Lálitpur, and Bánda, lie along or near the Himálayas. The principal timber trees are—*sál* (Shorea robusta), mango (Mangifera indica), *shisham* (Dalbergia Sissoo), *tún* (Cedrela Toona), *babúl* (Acacia arabica), pine or *chír* (Pinus longifolia), *ním* (Melia Azadirachta), box (Buxus sempervirens).

The gums are mostly the exudations of the following trees—the *kikar* or *babúl* (Acacia arabica), common all over the North-Western Provinces; the *khair* (Acacia Catechu), common in the sub-Himálayan tracts; the *reunja* (Acacia leucophlœa), common in Sahúranpur and in the Jumna ravines of the Doáb; the *dhák* (Butea frondosa), common in all jungles, and supplying the astringent gum known as *kamárkás* in the native *bázárs*. The chief resin is obtained from the pine or *chír*, a conifer common throughout the Kumáun Division, and the principal source of the turpentine in native use. Tar is sometimes made from its chips, which also supply an excellent torch.

A red dye called *ál* is obtained from the root of the Morinda citrifolia, found throughout Bundelkhand. For use the roots are mixed with sweet oil and ground to powder in a small hand-mill. Cloth is dyed by being boiled with the powder thus procured. A crimson dye is obtained from safflower (Carthamus tinctorius), the cultivation of which is almost wholly confined to the Meerut Division, where the safflower is sown along with gram or carrots. The flowers contain a yellow and a red pigment. If intended for export, they are crushed while a stream of water flows over them and carries off the yellow colouring matter. They are then made up into round flat cakes for market. If intended for local use, they are not deprived of the yellow pigment until immediately before the dyeing process, when it is removed as above, and the crushed florets kneaded up with an alkali (generally *sajji*, an impure carbonate of soda). An orange dye is obtained from the flowers of *harsingha* (Nyctanthes Arbor-tristis). The tree is most common at the foot of the Himálayas. The flowers are sweet-scented, and open only at night. They fall in numbers towards morning, and are then collected, dried, and kept till needed for

dyeing purposes *Tesu*, a yellow dye, is obtained from the flowers of the *dhak* (Butea frondosa) The dye is extracted by steeping the flowers in a weak solution of lime in water The bark of the *babul* is the commonest and most effective tanning agent used in the North Western Provinces The Cawnpur saddle and harness factory uses from 1000 to 1500 tons of *babul* bark annually Myrobolan the fruit of the Terminalia Chebula, is used as a grey dye and concentrator of colour, but is really a tanning ingredient It is well ground and mixed with *babul* bark in the proportion of 16 per cent

Fibres — The only plants grown for their fibre in the Provinces are those generally known as *sann* and *patsan* The former (Crotalaria juncea) is a leguminous plant cultivated chiefly in the Rohilkhand Allahabád and Agra Divisions It is used almost solely for making ropes and nets being rarely woven into cloth of any kind *Patsan* (Hibiscus cannabinus) belongs to the cotton plant family and is chiefly grown in the Meerut Division It is hardly ever sown by itself, but generally as a border to fields of cane cotton, and indigo The fibre is softer silkier and whiter than that of *sana* but not as strong It is chiefly used for making coarse cloth sacking and thin ropes There is little or no export trade in these fibres Two other fibrous plants are grown in these Provinces but not solely for the sake of the fibre One is the true hemp (Cannabis sativa) cultivated in Kumáun on account of the intoxicating drug it produces the *charas* and *bhang* of the *bazars* The fibre is sometimes extracted and used for making sacks and ropes The other is linseed (a variety of Linum usitatissimum the flax plant) grown in India exclusively for the seed None of the numerous attempts that have been made to utilize the fibre of linseed has proved a commercial success

Lac — Lac properly so called is the gummy deposit of the lac insect (Coccus lacca) and is found mainly on the twigs of the *dhak* (Butea frondosa) and the *pipal* (Ficus religiosa) It is brought in large quantities from the wooded hills of the Central Provinces and Chutia Nagpur to Mirzapur where 22 factories are engaged in the manufacture wo kinds of lac are exported in considerable quantities One is the d dye made from the dead bodies of the insects The other is shell , which is made by the trituration and washing of stick lac the form which the substance is brought in from the jungle The total ports were 2045 tons in 1881 and 3500 tons in 1885

The Fruits and Vegetables of the North Western Provinces are n almost entirely for local consumption. The principal fruits —mango (Mangifera indica), orange (Citrus aurantium), lemon us acida), citron (Citrus medica) lime (Citrus Limetta), pumelo us decumana), guava (Psidium guyava), custard apple (Anona nosa), plantain (Musa paradisiaca), pine apple (Ananassa sativa)

pomegranate (Punica granatum), melon (Cucumis melo). The vegetables most generally cultivated are the following:—Potato (Solanum tuberosum), very largely grown in both hills and plains; carrot (Daucus carota), universally grown in the plains during the cold weather; onion (Allium cepa); cucumber (Cucumis sativus); garlic (Allium sativum); turmeric (Curcuma longa), very common in the lower hills, where it forms an important crop; capsicums; gourds of many kinds; egg plant.

Irrigation.—The following is a list of the eleven systems of irrigation works which have been undertaken by the Government in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh up to 1883-84:—(1) Ganges Canal, (2) Lower Ganges Canal, (3) Eastern Jumna Canal, (4) Agra Canal, (5) Dún Canals, (6) Rohilkhand and Bijnaur Canals, (7) Bundelkhand Lakes, (8) Bundelkhand Irrigation Survey, (9) Sardah Canal, (10) Cawnpur Branch of the Lower Ganges Canal, and (11) Betwá Canal. The first four systems are classed as 'productive public works;' the following six as 'irrigation and navigation works not classed as productive;' and the last as a work of 'famine relief and insurance.' Of the eleven works named, the first seven are in full operation. Up to the close of the official year 1877-78, the total capital charges of all kinds amounted to £5,673,400; the total charge for interest in that year was £241,197, while the net income was £294,152, thus showing an actual profit of £52,955. But against this there must be set a sum of £637,826, representing accumulated excess of interest charges over revenue. Up to the close of 1883-84, the total capital charges of all kinds amounted to £7,153,247; the total charge for interest in that year was £245,002, while the net income was £420,716, thus showing an actual profit of £175,714. The enhancement to land revenue was £94,963; and deducting some miscellaneous charges, the net profit to the State from irrigation works in 1883-84 was £257,128. Against this there must be set £178,939 for accumulated excess of interest charges over revenue.

The Eastern Ganges Canal has been definitely abandoned, after an expenditure of £27,000; the Bundelkhand Surveys, with an expenditure of £17,322, and the Lower Ganges Canal, upon which £2,678,869 has been spent, have only of recent years begun to yield a return. The large undertaking known as the Lower Ganges Canal has, since 1880, paid over 4 per cent. on the capital outlay. Upon the systems in operation, the total capital outlay is (1884) £7,153,247, and it is upon this sum that the following figures are calculated. Total gross revenue in 1883-84, £643,474, of which £548,411 was derived from actual water rates, and £94,963 from enhanced land revenue; total working expenses, £222,758, leaving a net profit of £420,716, or 5·8 per cent. on the capital expenditure;

interest charges, £245,002, which, deducted from the net profit shown above, gives an actual return to Government of £175,714.

The area irrigated in 1877–78, owing to the general failure of the rains, was the largest up to that year known, amounting to 1,461,428 acres, namely —Rice, 221,670, cotton, 105 309 indigo, 210,349, fodder crops, 37,616, wheat, 415,659, other food grains, 262,867, oil seeds, 6936, fibres, 300, sugar-cane, 139,374, opium, 10,072, other drugs, 1154, garden produce, 31,858, miscellaneous, 18,264 acres. The grand total area irrigated in 1883–84 which was again larger than in any previous year, was 2,297,674 acres —Rice, 106,443 acres, cotton, 93,546, indigo, 295,388, pulses, 116,967, wheat, 824,607, barley, 292,028, other cereals, 184,697, sugar-cane, 155,147, oil seeds, 3269, fibres, 5739, opium, 17,045, other drugs 445, garden produce, 24,867, and the remainder (77,486) miscellaneous, of which 18 885 acres were under fodder crops Of the crops raised on irrigated land, the chief *kharif* or autumn crops are rice, indigo, cotton and sugar cane, the *rabi* or spring crops, wheat, barley, pulse, oil seed, and fibres In 1884, the irrigated area under *kharif* crops was 825,747 acres, and under *rabi*, 1,471,927 Ten years previously these figures were—under *kharif* crops, 389,707 acres, and under *rabi*, 752,745 acres.

Tenures—The system of land tenure is based upon the ancient Aryan communal type, with various modifications from the purest form of joint village proprietorship down to the separate ownership of particular plots The subject is so complex and important, that a complete account of the North Western Provinces tenures will be given in the next three pages, somewhat condensed from the standing information in the *Annual Administration Report* for 1882–83 A summary from the most recent inquiries will then be given on pages 386–7

When the British Government acquired the country, the following classes, from whom the previous Government had realized its revenue, were found in existence —(1) The representatives of old princely houses who paid the revenue on the whole, or as much as they could retain, of their inherited domains. (2) Contractors who farmed the Government revenue for more or less considerable groups of villages. (3) The village *zamíndárs*, whose tenure was of one of the following four kinds —(*a*) *zamíndári*, where the produce of the whole village is distributed, (*b*) *pattidári*, where the land in the whole village is divided, (*c*) imperfect *pattidári*, where the land is divided in one part, and the produce distributed in another part of the same village, but the shares in the land and the shares in the produce bear the same, or nearly the same, proportion to the shares in the original interest, (*d*) *bháyachara*, where the land is divided in part and the produce distributed in another part of the same village, but the shares in the land do not bear the same proportion as the shares in the

produce to the original interest, or where the whole land is divided and the separate properties have no rational proportion to one another. (4) The cultivators themselves, paying revenue through their head-man.

By the British Government, settlements for the payment of the revenue have been almost always made in the North-Western Provinces with either the village *zamíndárs* or the village head-men, and they are now the proprietors of the land in nearly every part of the Provinces. In Oudh the case was different. There the position of the owners of large estates was found to be much stronger than it had been in the North-Western Provinces half a century earlier; and after an unsuccessful attempt to make a settlement with the representatives of single villages, the Government finally conferred on the large proprietors, who are now known as *tálukdárs*, the right to engage for the revenue of all the villages for which they had paid it in the year preceding annexation. The total number of villages in the North-Western Provinces is 81,084, with an average area of about a square mile each; and by far the greater number are held by village proprietors. In Oudh there are 24,337 villages, with the same average area, of which about two-thirds are held by single proprietors of large estates, and one-third by village communities. There are altogether 337 *tálukdárs*, of whom 38 pay a revenue of more than £5000 per annum each. The average payment by a *tálukdár* is between £1700 and £1800, while the average revenue of each member of the proprietary communities is less than £5.

Neither in Oudh nor in the North-Western Provinces is the village now invariably the unit of revenue demand. The principle of joint responsibility for the revenue of all the members of the proprietary body has so far been relaxed that any individual sharer or group of sharers is allowed to apply for a complete partition both of the land and of the liabilities attached to it. Two or more villages may also be assessed for revenue in the aggregate. Each separate subdivision of a village, or group of villages separately assessed, is known as a *mahál*, and becomes, instead of the village, the ultimate unit of revenue demand, if not of assessment. In the eastern Districts there prevails a custom by which each member of a proprietary body in the possession of more villages than one, instead of taking compact shares in the whole property, is assigned a separate share in each of the villages. The result is that one property will often consist of a number of small detached shares scattered over as many villages, and in those cases the *mahál* is usually the aggregate of scattered shares composing an individual property.

Intermediate between the proprietors and the cultivators, are the sub-proprietors. The most common origin of this form of title was

when villages, of which the engagement under native rule had been retained by a *rájá* or *tálukdár*, also supported a family of village proprietors. The relations on which the village proprietors stood to the superior proprietor may have been of three kinds. They may have always collected the whole rents of the village, and paid them sometimes through the superior proprietor and sometimes direct to the Government official, *or they may have always paid them through the* superior proprietor and never direct; or while they held large areas of the village in their own occupation or in that of tenants cultivating under them, the superior proprietor may have realized the rents of the remainder of the village from the cultivators. The rule for the decision of these rights in the North Western Provinces was that, if the village proprietors had kept alive their title by some species of possession or management over the entire area of their estate, they were entitled to a sub settlement of the whole of it. In default of this, they must be content with the specific lands over which they had managed to retain the possession or control. In cases where sub proprietary rights in whole villages existed it was at the option of the Government to make the settlement either with the superior or with the inferior proprietor. The rule adopted was, that when the two classes were of the same family or class, and mutually willing to maintain the connection, the settlement should be made with the superior proprietor, and the inferior proprietor should pay him the Government demand, with all cesses, and a percentage of not less than 15 per cent. on the Government demand. When an engagement was taken from the inferior proprietor, he paid his revenue and cesses to the Government treasury, and an addition of 10 per cent on that demand, which was paid from the treasury to the superior proprietor. In either case, the inferior proprietor had the whole management of the village, and took all the profits that might be derived from it after paying the Government demand and the fixed allowance in favour of the superior proprietor. All persons who have at any time been in proprietary *possession of a village, but from any reason lose it, are entitled to* retain their *sír* or home farm land as ex proprietary tenants, at a rent which is fixed at one fourth less than the rent paid for similar land in the neighbourhood by tenants at will.

In Oudh, wherever there were two classes the settlement was always made with the superior proprietor. The inferior proprietor was, if he satisfied certain conditions with regard to his possession of the whole village before annexation, and could prove the enjoyment of a prescribed share of the profits, entitled to retain the management, paying the superior proprietor a certain percentage of the profits, proportional to the profits which he appeared to have enjoyed previously. This was rarely less than 10 per cent, or more than

half of the estimated profits. Where the inferior proprietor failed to prove sufficiently continuous possession or the proper profits, he was decreed the largest area of land which he had held in his possession for twelve years before annexation. The rent on this was fixed for the whole period of settlement and cannot be changed. It was either the rent he had been found to pay for the same land before annexation, if that could be discovered, or the Government revenue assessed on the particular land that was decreed to him plus a small percentage. The tenure so created is known as sub-proprietary *sír.* But a special rule was inserted in the Oudh Rent Act to provide for the case of ex-proprietors whose claims were not sufficiently recent to entitle them to decrees under the rules for *sír* and sub-settlement. They are secured the possession of all land in their cultivating occupancy which has not come into their possession for the first time since annexation, at a rent which is 12½ per cent. less than that paid by tenants-at-will in the same neighbourhood, and is liable to revision once in five years. The provision has affected only an infinitesimal proportion of the tenures in Oudh. Besides the rights retained by inferior or ex-proprietors, there are a number of small tenures held on special grants from either the Muhammadan Government or the proprietors, the conditions of tenure being settled in each case by the settlement officer or the ordinary civil court. In the North-Western Provinces, in consequence of the rare occurrence of large proprietors, the instances of two rights in the same village are infrequent. In Oudh they are much more common, and one-eighth of the whole number of villages are held in sub-settlement.

Summary of Tenures.—The cultivating classes are sharply divided into those who have and those who have not a proprietory interest in the soil. When we succeeded to the Government of the country, the petty Hindu principalities, which had once covered nearly the whole of it, had been generally destroyed by more powerful invaders. The rule of Kanauj and Delhi had been long extinct; in more recent times, the Katahria Rájputs had succumbed to the Rohillás, and the Bhadauria Chauhans to the Maráthás, and the same process had been going on over nearly the whole of the Provinces. The consequence is that there are now very few of the large estates which are the modern form of the petty principality. By far the greater part of the country is owned by village communities of the three principal types, *i.e. zamíndárí*, in which the whole land is held and managed in common, the rents and profits of the entire estate being thrown into a common stock and divided amongst the shareholders, whose rights are estimated by fractions of a rupee or of a *bighá* (the local unit of land measure); *pattidárí*, in which the lands are held severally by the different proprietors, all of whom are jointly responsible to Government for the revenue, though each is

primarily responsible, and *bhdyachdra*, in which portions of the land are held in severalty, while other portions may be held in common, with joint responsibility for the Government demand In this case the revenue is made up from the rents of the common land, if any, and by a cess on the individual holdings, apportioned by custom, or on a fixed scale.

Of the whole area under the plough, between one fourth and one fifth in the temporarily settled Districts is cultivated by the proprietors themselves, and the remainder is held by tenants who pay rent, in the more backward tracts in kind, but over by far the greater part of the Provinces in cash The tenants, again are divided into two classes, those with and those without rights of occupancy The status of the former depends on the length of his tenure, and when a field has been held for twelve years continuously by the same cultivator, he cannot be ejected except by regular suit and on legally defined grounds, nor is he liable to have his rent raised arbitrarily beyond the average rate paid by the same class of tenants in the neighbourhood The tenant of the second class holds his land entirely at the will of the owner In the three Divisions of Agra, Rohilkhand, and Allahábád, between a third and a half of the cultivated area is held with rights of occupancy In Meerut and the temporarily settled portions of Benares, about half that proportion The remainder is held by tenants at will

The areas in the occupancy of each cultivating family are exceedingly minute, and the size of farms ranges from 8½ acres in the Upper Doab to little over 3 acres in the more densely populated Districts in the eastern part of the Provinces

Rent—As regards rent, it is probable that rent originally consisted in a fixed share of the produce This form of payment still exists over a large portion of the Provinces, but is almost entirely confined to special tracts, such as the northern Districts of Oudh and Rohilkhand, where the population is scanty and the produce precarious The increasing density of the population, while it improved the style of cultivation, made it difficult to feed the same number on the same area without reducing the proportion of the produce paid as rent, and the conversion of grain rents into cash was facilitated by the recent large influx of silver The intermediate stages in the process were many and various Sometimes a cash rent was paid on every plough in lieu of the former grain rent, sometimes a rate was fixed for every class of land corresponding to its proved fertility, and sometimes a rate on each kind of crop, which varied with its market value. But the most common form was for the landlord to send an appraiser at harvest time, who estimated the weight of the standing crop, calculated the share which was due as rent, and its value in cash to be paid to the proprietor After a few years of valuation, a fixed money rent equal to the average

Classes of Cultivators—Omitting sub-proprietors, there are in Oudh only two classes of cultivators, the landlords themselves and the tenants at will Occupancy tenants in that Province have only weak sub proprietary rights. In the North Western Provinces, cultivators who have no proprietary rights have been divided into three classes—privileged tenants at fixed rates, occupancy tenants, and tenants at will.

The land which is cultivated by the proprietors themselves is known as their *sir* In Oudh there are no restrictions on the landlord s power to take as much of the land belonging to him as he may wish into his own cultivation, nor does he enjoy any special privileges with regard to it In the North Western Provinces, *sir* land differs from the rest of the village land in that no tenant cultivating it can acquire occupancy rights with respect to any portion of it, and its definition includes three classes —(1) Land recorded as *sir* at the last settlement, and continuously so recorded since, (2) land cultivated by the proprietor continuously for twelve years with his own stock or by his servants or hired labour, (3) land recognised by village custom as his special holding, and treated as such in the proprietary accounts Any other land which he may cultivate, though it may be known as such in common parlance, is not his *sir* in law, and does not bar the accrual of occupancy rights against cultivators to whom he may sub-let it Sixteen per cent of the holders are *sir* proprietors in the North Western Provinces Land in which the same person is both proprietor and cultivator cannot pay any true rent A nominal rent may be assessed on it, and entered in the village papers this being usually the sum which the proprietor has to contribute, in addition to the rental from his tenants, in order to adjust the accounts of the proprietary body of which he is a member

Privileged tenants occur only in the permanently settled Districts of the North Western Provinces, and are those who have held continuously at the same rate since the time of the Permanent Settlement It is presumed that a man who can prove continuous possession for twenty years has held since the settlement such tenants are entitled to a right of occupancy at the rate they have hitherto paid Occupancy right accrues in respect of any land which has been held by the same tenant for twelve years continuously, provided *that it is not part of the sir, or of the tenure of another favoured* tenant, or granted in lieu of wages, and that no such right can accrue during the term of a written lease It protects a tenant from eviction so long as the land is properly cultivated and the rent paid punctually, and from enhancement except by agreement, or at the order of a rent court, which will be guided by the rents paid by similar tenants for similar lands in the neighbourhood, and will not revise the

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rent at shorter intervals than ten years, or unless a revision of the revenue is in process. Tenants-at-will are liable to eviction at the end of the agricultural year, provided that the landlord serves a notice before 1st April in the North-Western Provinces and 15th April in Oudh, and pays the value of all unexhausted improvements. In the North-Western Provinces 38·5 per cent., and in Oudh 78 per cent., of the cultivators are tenants-at-will.

Condition of the Peasantry.—In favoured localities the peasantry are fairly well off; in the hill Districts they are well-to-do and independent; but in Bundelkhand they still suffer from the effects of former misrule and from the disasters of recent famine. The principal food of the people is wheat, barley, and the millets (*joár* and *bájra*). The highest castes among the agriculturists are said by Mr. J. C. Nesfield, in a work specially devoted to the subject of caste in the North-West, to be the Tagás and Bhuinhárs, who are distinguished from other agricultural castes by their forbidding the remarriage of their widows; next the Málís (gardeners—*máli* = a wreath of flowers), Tambulis (*pán* raisers—*tambul* = the *pán* creeper), Kúrmís, Káchhís (*kachh* = alluvial soil on a river's bank), and Kándus (riverain people—*kánd* = river bank); lastly, the low-caste Bayárs and Lodhas, who are clearers of jungle.

In 1881, the average payment to the State on each cultivated acre was 2s. 6d. (by far the larger part being land revenue); the average payment on each cultivated acre to local funds and cesses was 6d. in addition; and the average payment per cultivated acre on account of rent was 6s. 9d. In 1884, the average incidence of the land revenue (including local rates and cesses) over the cultivated area of the united Provinces was a fraction over 3s. 4d. per cultivated acre.

Natural Calamities.—The North-Western Provinces suffer, like the rest of India, from drought and its consequence, famine. The first great scarcity of which there are definite records occurred in the year 1783–84, and is known as the *chalisa* famine. Little rain fell for over two years; and the apathy of the native government, under which the greater part of the Provinces then remained, allowed the calamity to proceed unchecked. Thousands died of starvation; the bodies were not removed from where they lay; no relief was given to the sick or dying; and universal anarchy prevailed. The distress extended to Benares, where Warren Hastings witnessed its effects. Many villages devastated during this year never recovered, and their sites are still marked by vacant mounds. The next great famine occurred in 1803–04, just after the British occupation of the Doáb. It was most severely felt in that part of the Provinces; but it also caused a rise of prices in the Benares Division and Rohilkhand. In 1813–14, 1828, and 1833 famine

again affected the middle and lower Doáb, and produced disastrous results in Bundelkhand

But the most terrible of all famines, since the British occupation, took place in 1837-38 Its effects extended to all parts of the Provinces In spite of strenuous efforts on the part of the authorities, much disorganization took place—the peasantry had recourse in some localities to plunder, the cattle starved and died wells dried up, grass perished, and the people roamed from place to place in the vain expectation of finding food Lord Auckland then Governor General, left Calcutta to take charge of the local government and sanctioned the employment of the starving poor on relief works Nevertheless, hundreds of thousands perished of starvation, the sick or dying lined the roads, and pestilence followed in the wake of famine Between January and July 1838, the relief works at Cawnpur were attended by a vast multitude of people The revenue suffered to the extent of one and a quarter million sterling This frightful calamity led to increased attention being given to irrigation works, and the Ganges Canal, shortly afterwards begun, has been largely instrumental in preventing the recurrence of similar distress Another famine occurred in 1860-61, when relief works were opened throughout the Upper Doab and Rohilkhand, and the Government made every effort to relieve the starving peasantry

In 1868-69 drought once more occurred but owing to the admirable preventive measures adopted by the authorities severe distress was confined to the remoter Districts of Bundelkhand Profiting by the experience of previous years, the Government sketched out beforehand its plan of operations, as soon as it became evident that famine was inevitable, and when the necessity for action arose each official had his work ready prepared for him The threatened tracts were marked out into convenient circles, and placed under special superintendence Works of permanent utility, such as roads and tanks, gave employment to the able bodied poor, while the aged and infirm received shelter in poorhouses Every possible care was taken to prevent cases of starvation, and although to a less extent in the more remote parts of Bundelkhand the distress was greatly mitigated by the action of the Government

The last famine which affected these Provinces was in 1877-79, and in point of severity it probably did not fall below any of those that have occurred during British rule The autumn crop of 1877 was a total failure, no rain falling till October, when it was too late to be of use The succeeding spring harvest of 1878 was damaged by rust, blight, and hailstorms, and in but few places yielded an average crop. Exports kept up the prices almost to famine rates all through the hot weather of 1878, and it was only in October and November of that year that

distress sensibly abated. Relief works and poorhouses were provided; but the mortality from famine and its attendant diseases reached an enormous figure. The Rohilkhand Districts suffered most, particularly Bijnaur; then the Oudh Districts of Lucknow, Rai Bareli, and Bara Banki, followed by Basti, Gorakhpur, Azamgarh, Agra, and Muttra; but no District of the Lieutenant-Governorship escaped altogether. The Government expenditure on relief operations for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh is officially returned at £185,696, besides a State outlay on charitable relief amounting to £37,315.

At the present time, the system of irrigation canals, the network of railway communications, and the cross-country roads, probably suffice to protect the Doab, the trans-Jumna Districts, Rohilkhand, and the Benares Division from the extremity of famine. But the country beyond the Gogra is not yet well provided with means of communication; and the almost isolated position of the Jhánsi Division, combined with the poverty of its soil and the absence of irrigation, render the recurrence of drought in that tract especially dangerous. Of recent years, however, the Betwá Canal and railway lines that will traverse the Division north and south and east and west are being rapidly pushed on. The Sárda Canal project, when carried out, will do much to protect the Oudh Districts, and the eastern Districts of the North-Western Provinces through which it will pass, from future visitations of famine. The new Agra Canal has already proved a great success in this respect.

Commerce and Trade, etc.—The export trade of the North-Western Provinces is chiefly confined to the raw produce of its agriculture. It may be divided into two parts, the trade with Tibet and Nepál, and the trade with other Provinces of British India, including the ports of Calcutta and Bombay. The export staples include wheat, oil-seeds, raw cotton, indigo, sugar, molasses, timber, and forest produce, dye-stuffs, *ghí*, opium, and tobacco. The imports consist mainly of English piece-goods, metal-work, manufactured wares, salt, and European goods.

In 1880-81, the value of the trans-frontier export trade, as represented by the commodities exported to Tibet from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, was £16,882, and £23,648 in 1883-84; of commodities exported to Nepál, £322,262 in 1881-82, and £291,124 in 1883-84. The imports from Tibet and Nepál are as follow:—Values in 1881-82, £43,242 from Tibet and £572,264 from Nepal; in 1883-84, £60,845 from Tibet and £735,788 from Nepál. The chief exports to Tibet are grain, sugar, cotton goods, and pedlars' wares. The Tibetan lakes supply the people with salt and borax, and the pastures of Tibet rear goats of the finest fleece. These products are bartered for goods from India. Chief imports from Tibet (1883-84)—borax, £33,793;

salt, £13,749, wool, £9254 chief exports to Tibet—cotton, £2790, grains, £15,163, sugar, £2933 The usual rate of barter is two quantities of borax for one of rice. The borax comes to India by way of Kumáun, wool by way of Dehra Dun, and salt through the Nilangháti, Dharma, and Biáns Passes. The chief imports from Nepál are grains, oil seeds, timber, gums, and resins and the chief exports, cotton goods, metals, sugar, and salt. The timber goes by way of the river Gandak The passes through which the trade with Tibet flows are the Nilangháti, the Mana, the Níti, the Johar, the Dharma and Biáns. The trade with Nepál flows by nine 'streams of traffic for each of which there is a registration post Transactions in all articles except wood and grains take place through British traders residing at or visiting the Nepálese marts in the Tarái, as the policy of Nepal is to prevent the sales of Nepálese exports taking place in British territory Transactions in wood are concluded with the Nepálese officials direct, and for rice, engagements are made with the Tarái cultivators, who are usually paid partly in advance

The chief centres of trade in the North Western Provinces and Oudh are Cawnpur, Allahabád, Mirzapur, Benares, Meerut, Koil, Háthras, Muttra, Agra, Farukhábad, Moradábad, Chandausi, Bareli, Saháranpur, Ghazíabád, Kasganj, Bijnaur, Nagina, Najíbabád, Gorakhpur Ghazipur, Pilibhit, and Shahjahanpur In 1883-84, the value of the total traffic of Cawnpur, import and export, amounted to over 9¾ millions sterling Its trade is mostly in cotton goods and grain Agra city has a traffic valued at about 4 millions annually Delhi, although outside the limits of the North Western Provinces, is, for the purposes of trade registration, as intimately connected with the Meerut Division as Agra is with the Agra Division The trade of Delhi comes next to that of Cawnpur with an annual total of over 7 millions. In 1883-84, the year for which the most recent figures are available, Cawnpur imported from places inside as well as outside the Provinces, goods to the value of £5,344,278, and exported to places outside as well as inside the Provinces, goods to the value of £4,416 728 Similar figures for Agra are—imports, £2,237,343, exports, £1,814,256 Taking the figures for Delhi in the same year, the imports were £4,136,674, and the exports £3 235,989 The traffic of Cawnpur amounts to one fourth of the total traffic of the united Provinces. The whole import and export trade of the North Western Provinces and Oudh in 1883-84 was valued at £28,632,000

Analysis of Trade—The trade of the North Western Provinces finds three methods of carriage,—the railways, the rivers and canals, and the country roads, of which the first is much the most important. Agricultural produce contributes about 60 per cent of the exports and 12 per cent of the imports. The exports of agricultural produce are made up

from an enormous aggregate of very small items, the surplus out-turn of minute farms. The least failure of the rains, or any other temporary check to agriculture, changes the surplus into a deficit, and substitutes a large import for the export. The only parts of the Province where the export of agricultural produce shows any steadiness are Bundelkhand and the sub-Himálayan tract running from Pilibhít to Gonda, in both of which the population is scanty. It is next steadiest in Meerut, where the average size of a farm is greater than in any other part of the Provinces, except the two just mentioned.

By far the chief customer of the Province is Calcutta, the combined value of whose exports and imports is very nearly half the value of the whole railway-borne trade of the Provinces. After Calcutta come the following marts, with the total value of their trade with the North-West:—Rájputána, £4,034,000; Punjab, £2,990,000; Bengal, £2,847,000; Bombay, £1,760,000.

Cawnpur still retains the pre-eminence among the local marts, with an annual trade worth about ten millions. But its pre-eminence is not so decided as it was ten years ago, and Agra, perhaps, threatens some day to challenge it. After Agra, in order of relative importance, come Benares, Faizábád, Lucknow, Allahábád, and Meerut.

The total value of the water-borne traffic is estimated at nearly four millions sterling, of which more than half is carried in about equal proportions by the Gogra and the Ganges. Next in order come the Rápti river, the Ganges Canal, the Jumna, the Gúmti, and the Agra Canal. Agricultural produce forms by far the most important item of the trade, which, however, also includes large exports of wood and stone.

There are no figures to show the traffic carried by the country roads beyond the frontiers of the Provinces, except those relating to the trade with Tibet and Nepál (given above).

Omitting the ordinary road traffic between the North-Western Provinces and their neighbours under the British Government, the whole foreign trade may be estimated at about 30 millions sterling annually, for which returns amounting to over 28½ millions are available. But even the estimate of 30 millions sterling is much below the truth, if the inter-provincial road traffic were included.

Trading Castes.—The general name for a trader in India is *Baniyá* or *Bunnia.* He keeps the small village shop, stored with meal, oil, and spices, with perhaps a little stock of Manchester calicoes; and he acts as the banker, pawnbroker, and money-lender of the neighbourhood. But there is a distinct series of trading castes under this generic description. The chief of them in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh are the following:—(1) Banjáras, or forest traders or carriers, who are the least civilised of the trading classes, and whose speciality is carrying

merchandise on the backs of bullocks along obscure forest paths where any other than a gipsy would be lost Besides acting as carrier, the Banjára follows the calling of a cattle grazier, and sometimes that of a robber The Banjáras are chiefly to be found in the Tarái, or sub Himálayan tracts They are slowly becoming civilised (2) Kunjras, or greengrocers, who carry their wares from door to door, and rarely keep a shop They are not far removed from the nomadic state, and are held in low esteem (3) Bhurjis, or grain parchers, who sell grain either in its whole state or in the form of a powder or flour called *sattu*, consisting of parched grain and parched rice mixed (4) The Raunia, Bilwar, Bhurtia, and Lohia castes, are small retail dealers and seldom keep regular shops (5) The Kasondhan Kasarbani Vishnoi, Rastogi, Unaya, Orh, and Maheshwari castes are traders, keeping regular shops (6) The Agrahári, Agarwala Bohra, and Khatri castes are bankers, wholesale dealers, and wealthy traders The Bohra seldom keeps a shop, and is known for his rapacity as an usurer He bears the same character in Bombay as is attributed to him in Northern India The Khatri is the highest and most important of all the trading castes He is a strictly orthodox Hindu, and is found as a *guru*, or spiritual guide among the Sikhs His operations extend far beyond his own Province He commands the markets of Afghánistán. Vambery the traveller met him offering his oblations at Baku on the Caspian The number of Baniyás, including nearly all Hindu trading castes, recorded in the Census of 1881 for the North Western Provinces and Oudh was 1 204,130

Artistic Handicrafts—The principal are the carved ebony of Nagina (value of out turn in 1883, £3000), white wood carving of Saharanpur (value of out turn in 1883, £500), wire inlaid wood work of Mainpuri (value of annual out turn, £600), wood carving of Pilibhit (value of out turn in 1883, £100) wire inlaid work of Pilibhit (value of out turn in 1883, £1700), Bareli, furniture (value of out turn in 1883, £5000), Benares, brass work (value of out turn in 1883 £5000), Moradabad, metal ware, mostly exported to Bombay (number of firms engaged in the trade, 158 in 1883 employing 1400 workmen, who turned out work to the value of over £30 000), Lucknow, diamond cut silver work, mostly bangles, the trade being supported almost entirely by European visitors in the cold weather (value of out turn in 1883, £1800), Lucknow, embroidery (a craft giving employment to 156 firms and 750 workmen, most of the latter reported as being steeped in hopeless poverty, and earning the barest pittance for their work), Agra, mosaics (annual value of out turn, £2000), Sikandrábád, muslin work, Lucknow, pottery and models in clay (mostly of Indian scenes and servants), Alígarh, pottery, Rampur, pottery, a blue glazed ware, Cawnpur, leather work in portmanteaus,

saddlery and harness; Sahāranpur, leather-work in articles made from the skin of the *sámbhar* deer; Benares, silk and cotton fabrics of two kinds—a thick woven brocade and a thin silk fabric—both made of silk and silver thread so as to form patterns of great variety and beauty (number of firms 417, number of workmen 2926); Farukhābād and Kanauj, calico chintz fabrics; Mirzāpur, carpets (value of out-turn in 1883, £3000); Kālpi, paper of two kinds, *bakkar* and *mahajáli*; and Jaunpur, scent, expressed from the *til* seed.

Factories and Manufactures by Steam.—Seventeen large private factories in the Provinces are worked in whole or part by steam. Cawnpur has 3 cotton mills, 2 woollen mills, and 1 soap factory; Lucknow has a paper mill; Meerut, a soap factory; Allahābād, a steam foundry; Shāhjahānpur, a rum and sugar factory; and Lucknow, Masūri, and Naini Tāl, breweries. The number of indigo factories in 1884 was 1963, owned by 153 Europeans and 1810 natives; average number of employees, 84,172; value of out-turn, £1,166,263. There are 22 lac factories in Mirzāpur District. Ice factories are worked at Agra and Allahābād. Engineering workshops are supported by the Government at Alīgarh and Rurki; the latter, however, is about to be transferred to a private company. The chief jail industries are cloth-weaving, carpet-making, blanket-making, tent-making, and brick and tile making, aloe-fibre making, *múnj* twine-making, rope-making, net-making; basket and bamboo work. Value of total out-turn of jail manufactures in 1884, £32,500.

The Provinces contain little mineral wealth, the quarries being almost entirely confined to the supply of building stone, and of nodulated limestone (*kankar*) for road metal. A company started to work the iron-ores of Kumāun failed after a few years' trial.

Communications.—The great water-ways of the Ganges and the Jumna formerly afforded the principal outlet for the overflowing produce of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, and they still carry a large portion of the heavy traffic. The Gogra forms the main channel for the grain and cotton of Gorakhpur, Basti, and Azamgarh, and for the forest products of Nepal.

But a network of railways has now superseded the rivers throughout the greater part of the Provinces. The East Indian Railway from Calcutta crosses the Bengal boundary near Baxar, and runs near the south bank of the Ganges through Mirzāpur to Allahābād, giving off a short branch at Mogul Sarāi to the shore opposite Benares, and to Ghāzipur from Dildarnagar. From Nāini junction, near Allahābād, the Jabalpur (Jubbulpore) branch strikes south-westward, forming the line of communication between Calcutta and Bombay. The main line then crosses the Jumna from Nāini to Allahābād, and runs north-westward through the Lower and Middle Doāb, passing

Fatehpur, Cawnpur, and Etáwah, sending off a branch to Agra, and continuing by Alígarh and Gháziabad junction to Delhi A short extension of the East Indian Railway, 12 miles in length, connects Dildarnagar with Ghazipur From Ghaziabad, the Sind, Punjab, and Delhi Railway takes up the great trunk line to Meerut, Muzaffarnagar, and Saharanpur, and finally crosses the Jumna into the Punjab The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway, diverging from the former system opposite Benares, runs through Jaunpur to Faizabad, and thence to Lucknow A branch runs south west to Cawnpur, but the main line continues north west to Shahjahanpur, Bareli, Moradabad, and Saháranpur The Kumáun Rohilkhand railway, a private line, connects Bareli with Kathgodam (66 miles), at the foot of the Himalayas, on the road to Naini Tál Another branch runs south westward from Chan dausi, crossing the Ganges at Rájghát, and joining the East Indian line at Aligarh The Cawnpur Achnera line connects the former city with Farukhabád, Háthras, and Muttra From Agra the Rájputána State Railway diverges to Bhartpur, and a narrow gauge line connects Muttra and Hathras with the East Indian line From Cawnpur to Farukhábád, 86 miles, a State railway on the metre gauge has been opened, and more recently extended for a distance of 103 miles to Háthras The Muttra Achnera line, 23 miles, connects Muttra with Agra city The Barelí Pilibhit line has been recently opened, and the Patna Bahráich metre gauge railway, 455 miles in length, is in course of construction Numerous other lines are under construction or have been surveyed

Besides this great ramifying system of railways, the Grand Trunk Road traverses the heart of the Provinces, and other good roads connect the chief towns and villages The Ganges, Lower Ganges, Eastern Jumna, and Agra Canals are also navigable throughout their whole course

Administration.—The chief governing power rests with the Lieutenant Governor and Chief Commissioner, whose Secretariat staff consists of the Chief Secretary to Government, the Oudh Revenue Secretary, the Junior Secretary (in charge of Finance), and three Under-Secretaries The administration of the Department of Public Works is under the charge of the Chief Engineer (Buildings and Roads), who is Secretary in the Public Works Department, and of the Chief Engineer for Canals, who is Secretary in the Irrigation Branch

Next in degree come the Commissioners of Divisions, of which there are eleven in the Lieutenant Governorship The Commissioner is the direct channel of communication between the District officer and the head of the Government and the Board of Revenue He also hears appeals from the Collectors and their subordinates in rent and revenue cases, and is invested with large executive and police powers. A Com missioner in the North Western Provinces has six or seven Districts

Other chief items of revenue in the same year were—stamps, £600,600, excise, £519,100, provincial rates (including school, District post, road, and other local cesses), £649,500, assessed taxes, £119,500, forests, £161,100, registration, £34,000 post-office, £140,500, law and justice, £97,500, police (mostly fines), £42,600, education, £12,100, medical, £14,300, gross earnings of productive State railways, £61,200, direct receipts from productive irrigation and navigation works, £535,000, portion of land revenue due to irrigation, £87,200, and miscellaneous, £264,000

The chief item of expenditure in 1883-84 was the cost of the collection of land revenue shown above (£800 700) Other items were—for collection of stamp duties, £12,000, collection of excise, £11,000, forest charges, £104,100, registration £20,000, cost of post office, £154,500, general administration (salaries of civil servants, etc), £159,200, law and justice, £518 900 police, £603 900, education, £166,200, ecclesiastical, £23,000, medical, £108 300, territorial and political pensions, £99,800, superannuation, £114,900, stationery and printing, £51,400, railway works protective against famine, £117,100, irrigation works protective against famine, £111,700, maintenance of ordinary irrigation works, £218,600, interest charges for capital already sunk in irrigation works, £247 100, cost of buildings, courts etc., by Public Works Department, £630,500

Excise—The duty received for licences to sell spirits in 1883-84 was—in the North-Western Provinces £125,929 and £32,197 in Oudh To sell country drugs and intoxicants, £51,212 in the North Western Provinces, and £10,919 in Oudh To sell opium, £9223 in the North Western Provinces, and £1160 in Oudh

Police—The police force (regular) of the united Provinces for 1883-84, including officers and men, numbered 33,059, and cost £444,449 The officers include 1 Inspector General, 2 Deputy Inspectors General, 1 personal Assistant to Inspector General 33 District and 8 Assistant District Superintendents in the North Western Provinces, and 12 District Superintendents in Oudh, 1 Inspector General of Railway Police, 192 subordinate inspectors with a pay of more than £10 a month, 4053 subordinate officers with less than £10 a month, 638 mounted police, 17,308 regular foot constables, 828 municipal officers, and 9982 municipal constables There is thus one regular policeman to every 3 2 square miles of area in the North Western Provinces and Oudh, and to every 1334 persons of the population In urban localities the proportion is 1 policeman to every 447 inhabitants. As regards the race of the police force, 104 are Europeans, 47 Eurasians, and the remainder natives. Among the officers there are 149 Christians and 2089 Muhammadans, of the remainder (24381), 538 are Brahmans, 341 Rajputs, 45 Gurkhas, 310 Sikhs, 103 Punjabis,

55 Játs, 601 Káyasths, 412 of miscellaneous caste, 3 Baurís, and 30 Afgháns. Of the men, 19 are Christians; Muhammadans, 6994; Bráhmans, 4155; Rájputs, 3501; Gúrkhas, 203; Sikhs, 753; Punjabis, 291; Játs, 265; Káyasths, 867; of miscellaneous castes, 3582; Baurís, 33; and Afgháns, 98. In addition to the regular provincial police, there is a force of 92,099 village watchmen or *chaukídárs*, maintained at a total cost of £298,596.

Jails.—The daily average of the prison population in the jails of the united Provinces was 23,362 in 1883–84. The jails are divided into 7 central prisons (at Meerut, Bareli, Agra, Fatehgarh, Allahábád, Benares, and Lucknow), 45 District jails, and 30 lock-ups. Total number of juvenile offenders 668, for whom no reformatory as yet exists; total convicts despatched to the Andamans, 214; total jail expenditure of united Provinces, £91,754 in 1883, the net cost to the State of each convict being about £3, 7s. 9d. Total profit to Government from jail labour, £15,616. Death-rate per 1000 of the jail population, 19·73.

The number of cognisable crimes reported in 1883–84 was 144,611, of which 6138 were serious offences against the person, and 48,981 serious offences against property. The number of murders in 1883 was 412; of *dakaití* or gang-robbery, 94 (of which 34 were in Oudh); robberies, 150 (mostly on private vehicles and on foot-passengers); poisoning, 21; and cattle-stealing, 55,000. In Meerut, Agra, and Rohilkhand, cattle-lifting is said to be a distinct pursuit of certain criminal classes. As regards criminal procedure, the number of persons brought to trial in 1883 in the North-Western Provinces was 100,287, and in Oudh 29,582. As regards civil procedure, the number of original suits instituted during 1883 in the North-Western Provinces was 87,759, and in Oudh 37,242, exclusive of 31,623 rent suits.

Municipalities.—There were in 1883–84, 109 towns in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh municipally organized; total population of the municipalities, 3,087,719. Income (1884), £267,377, derived from the following sources — taxation (mostly octroi), £206,503; rents of houses, gardens, etc., £31,767; fines, £1954; miscellaneous, £16,350; grants-in-aid, £10,268; and smaller items. Octroi is the sole tax in 60 municipalities, the impost being levied on grain, sugar, *ghí*, oil-seeds, tobacco, drugs, cloth, and metals. Direct taxes are the house-tax, £2700; a tax on trades and professions, £11,606; and a property tax, £4771. The average incidence of municipal taxation per head of the municipal population is 1s. 4d. for the united Provinces.

University Education.—There are thirteen colleges or sections of colleges which give what is technically called University education.

These are the English colleges at Agra, Allahábád, and Benares, and the newly-established college class in the Faizábád High School; the aided English colleges at Lucknow and Alígarh; the unaided college department of St. John's, Agra, and the London Mission College at Benares; the oriental departments of the Government college at Benares, and of the aided colleges at Lucknow and Alígarh, and the law classes at Allahabád and Lucknow. La Martinière at Lucknow and the Thomason Engineering College are not connected with the Education Department. Nine hundred and seventy three students were on the rolls on the 31st of March 1883, of whom 223 were in the English Government colleges, 164 in aided and 28 in unaided English colleges, 399 were in the Government Sanskrit College at Benares, 124 in aided oriental colleges, and 35 in the aided law colleges The average number on the rolls during the year was 882, and the average daily attendance 764. The classification of the students according to race and creed was as follows:—Europeans and Eurasians, 6, Native Christians, 9; Hindus, 835; and Muhammadans, 122 Of these students, 428 were learning English, and 837 a classical oriental language The total cost of all the colleges was £21,497, of which £12,777 came from provincial revenues, £407 from local rates, £5347 from endowments, £1194 from fees, and £1768 from other sources

General State Education.—The system of State education is under an Education Department, at the head of which is the Director of Public Instruction. Under him are the Divisional Inspectors of Schools in the North-Western Provinces, and in Oudh an Inspector and an Assistant Inspector The inspectors visit and examine all high and middle schools, and as many of the primary schools as they can visit in their tours. They superintend all the *zilá* schools in their divisions, and the normal schools are under their immediate management Middle and primary vernacular schools in the North Western Provinces have for some years been supervised and controlled by District school committees, the duties and powers of inspectors being confined—as regards these schools—to inspection, examination, suggestion, and report These committees have been recently merged in the newly-constituted District boards, which, with increased powers and responsibilities, are entrusted with the general supervision and management of all primary and middle vernacular schools, with the financial control of *zilá* schools, the superintendence of boarding-houses, and the care of local scholarships and endowments. This system has, since the 1st of April 1882, been introduced into Oudh also. The Deputy Inspectors are the subordinates and ministers of the District boards. The Government colleges at Allahabád and Benares remain under the superintendence and control of the Director of Public Instruction.

The number of schools of every class under the Department in 1883–84 was 6603, and the number of pupils in them was 246,987. Thus there is a Government aided or inspected school to every 6 square miles of area, while the percentage of scholars among the whole population is ·55, that is, 1 out of every 200 people in the united Provinces is under instruction supervised by the State. The returns for primary, indigenous, or other private schools are incomplete, but a return approximately attempted in 1883 gave the number of pupils in such indigenous or other private schools at 68,305. Assuming 15 per cent. of the population to be of school-going age, it appears that 6·8 per cent. of the boys and ·3 per cent. of the girls are actually undergoing instruction in the public schools of the Provinces. Female education is thus extremely backward.

The provincial expenditure on instruction during 1883–84, exclusive of cost of direction, inspection, etc. (£45,973) paid out of imperial funds, was £183,521—namely, on Government colleges, £11,537; on high and middle schools, £23,620; on lower (primary) schools, £70,180; on special schools (mostly normal schools), £6867; on aided schools and colleges, £69,533; and on unaided institutions by special grant, etc., £1781. The annual cost of each pupil educated in a Government college was £24; the cost to Government in aided colleges was £10, the total cost of a pupil in an aided college being about £32. The pupils at the Muir College, Allahábád, cost £66 each to Government, and about £74 in all; in the Canning College, Lucknow, £15 each to Government, and £38 in all; in the Agra College, £13 each to Government, and £63 in all. The average yearly cost to the State of pupils receiving a higher education is £4 each, and of pupils receiving a primary education, 8s. 6d. each. An analysis of the cost of direction, inspection, and miscellaneous, taken from imperial funds, shows the expenditure on these heads as follows:—Direction, £3686; inspection, £22,190; building grants, £11,843; miscellaneous, including scholarships, £8252. The total receipts of the Department in 1883 amounted to £65,314—namely, municipal grants, £6141; subscriptions and donations, £30,116; fees, £20,336; endowments, £8719.

European and Eurasian education in the united Provinces is cared for by 26 aided schools for boys and 12 for girls; free education is provided for the really indigent. The male pupils in these schools number 1518, and the female 837. Total cost, £16,392.

Generally speaking, education is making steady progress throughout the central Gangetic plain, though still very backward in the Himálayàn Districts, in Bundelkhand, and in the remoter parts of Rohilkhand and the trans-Gogra tract. As regards higher education, 82 institutions sent up 779 candidates in 1883–84 for the examinations of

the Calcutta University; and of these 393 passed successfully. Of the 393 successful candidates, 293 passed the matriculation, 70 the First Arts, 22 the Bachelor of Arts, 7 the Master of Arts, and 1 the Bachelor of Law examination. Four institutions containing 570 pupils are affiliated to the University. The Delhi College (in the Punjab) is the representative of Arabic and Persian literature, as that of Benares is of Sanskrit. There are also a Government aided and Church Missionary Society (St. John's) college at Agra, and there was a Government college at Bareilly, now abolished. The Muir Central College has recently been established at Allahabad, at which the higher education, in preparation for university honours, is being gradually concentrated. The number of normal schools is 12 Government and 2 aided, 3 of the whole number being for mistresses, pupils, 516. There are 2 aided industrial schools, with 169 pupils. Girls' schools number 18, and contain 509 pupils.

It should not be forgotten, in the history of Indian education, that under a former Lieutenant Governor, Mr Thomason, the North Western Provinces took the lead in the establishment of village schools, and the promotion of primary education. There are now three circles of inspection; and the number of *halkabandi* schools (village circle schools) is so greatly increased as to bring primary education within easy reach of all who choose to avail themselves of it.

Throughout the Provinces, Urdu or Hindustáni is spoken by the Muhammadans and Kayasths, but Hindi is the true vernacular of the country, being spoken by the rural population with greater or less purity, according to the proportionate influence of Muhammadan colonization. The educated classes usually employ the Persian character, the traders use a corrupt form of the Nagari letters. The Provinces contained 108 printing presses in 1875–76, and 267 in 1884. The number of literary societies formed by natives is 19, the oldest dating back to 1861.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of the North Western Provinces and Oudh as a whole may be classed as hot and dry. Excluding the observations taken at places of abnormal altitude, the general mean temperature in 1883 was 76.3° F., and the general mean rainfall 24 inches, but of course these figures vary enormously with the District, the season of the year, and the time of the day or night. The Himalayan Districts are cool, and have a much greater rainfall than the plains. In these Districts the rainfall in 1883 was 56 inches. They are succeeded by a broad submontane belt, the Taráí, which is rendered moist by the mountain torrents, and is covered by forest from end to end. This region bears a singularly bad reputation as the most unhealthy in all India, and in many parts only the acclimatized aborigines can withstand its deadly malaria. The plain country is generally warm and dry, the heat becoming more oppressive as the general level

of the country sinks towards Allahábád and Benares, or among the hills of Bundelkhand. The mean temperature of 8 stations in 1883–84 was as follows:—Highest monthly maximum, 113·8° F.; lowest monthly minimum, 39·2° F.; general mean temperature, 76·3° F. The highest monthly maximum was 85° F. at Chakráta in Dehra Dún, 111·6° F. at Meerut, 116·4° F. at Allahábád, and 115° F. at Jhánsi; the lowest monthly maximum was 27·8° F. at Chakráta, 35·7° F. at Meerut, 39·7° F. at Allahábád, and 45° F. at Jhánsi. The general mean was 55·5° F. at Chakráta, 75·1° F. at Meerut, 73° F. at Bareli, 77·2° F. at Allahábád, 77·5° F. at Benares, and 75·2° F. at Jhánsi. The total rainfall in 1883–84 amounted to 56·94 inches at Chakráta, 56·43 at Dehrá, 13·6 at Meerut, 19 at Bareli, 25·6 at Allahábád, 30·58 at Benares, and 16·70 at Jhánsi.

The chief disease is fever. Dysentery and bowel complaints are also endemic, and cholera and small-pox break out from time to time in an epidemic form. The facilities for vaccination, however, afforded by Government, have done much to check the ravages of the last-named disease. The total number of deaths registered in 1875–76 amounted to 671,491, or 21·8 per thousand, and in 1883–84 to 1,216,297, or 27 per thousand. Of this rate per thousand, cholera carried off 0·39; fevers, 18·65; small-pox, 3·15; bowel complaints, 1·37; injuries, 0·48; and all other causes, 3·01. Nearly 6500 persons perished from snake-bite or the attacks of wild beasts. The number of suicides was 2070, of which 1556 were the suicides of women. Statistics available for the registration of births show a birth-rate of 49·4 per thousand. The total number of charitable dispensaries established by Government throughout the Provinces up to 1884 was 234, of which 60 are in Oudh. The number of persons relieved (in-door and out-door) was 793,765 in 1876, and 1,567,456 in 1883; namely, in-door patients, 42,284; out-door, 1,525,172. Of the in-door patients, 2549 died. Of the whole number relieved in the dispensaries, 364,364 were children, and 296,110 were women. Total expenditure during year, £39,431. The number of persons vaccinated in 1883 was 649,057; total cost of the operations, £12,365.

Nosári.—Division of the Native State of Baroda (Gáekwár's territory). Area, 1940 square miles. Population, 241,255 in 1872, and 287,549 in 1881, namely, 146,477 males and 141,072 females. Hindus number 164,094; Muhammadans, 23,009; aboriginal tribes, 91,317; Pársís, 7441; Jains, 1675; and Christians, 13. The Division lies, speaking roughly, north and south of the river Tápti, and contains the 3 Sub-divisions of Nosári, Songarh, and Viára. The two small *mahâls* of Gandevi and Nosári are the garden of the tract, rich in fruit, vegetables, and sugar-cane. Corn and cotton are cultivated farther north. In Viára and Songarh the surface is clothed with jungle, the resort of wild beasts.

The famous hill forts of Songarh and Saler lie in this region, the former being the cradle of the royal house of Baroda Land revenue (1881), £190,494. Chief towns of the Division—Nosari, Gandevi, and Bilimora.

Nosári (*Navasári*)—Town in Baroda State, Bombay Presidency Known to Ptolemy, the Greek geographer (A D 150), as Nasaripa Nosari is situated in an outlying tract surrounded by the British District of Surat, on the left or south bank of the river Purna, about 12 miles from the sea, and distant by rail 18 miles south from Surat city, 99 from Baroda, and 149 miles north from Bombay Lat 22° 7 N, long 73° 40 E. Population (1881) 14,920 Hindus number 8406, Muhammadans, 2315, Parsis, 4062, Jains, 134, and Christians, 3 The PURNA, which is navigable up to this point, is known to mariners as the Navasári river It admits vessels of 100 tons, but though the bed is broad, the deep channel winds between sandbanks, and cannot be safely entered without a pilot In 1874, the total exports by sea were valued at £9788, the imports at £2531 grand total, £12,319 In 1880-81, the figures were—imports, £2969, exports, £4852 total, £7821 In 1874, the traffic at the railway station of Nosári, on the Bombay, Baroda, and Central India line consisted of 153,071 passengers and 6445 tons of goods. In 1879, the number of passengers was 98,107, tons of goods carried, 9569 Nosari is a thriving town, its prosperity mainly depending upon its large Parsi colony Many of the Pársis are cotton weavers, but there are also a considerable number of *workers in copper, brass, iron, and wood Nosári town has given* its name to a gate and market place in Surat city Dispensary, public library, and jail. There is also a Government distillery Here the Gáekwar, Malhar Rao, married for the fourth time Before celebrating the nuptials, His Highness was in due form married to a silk cotton tree, which was then as formally destroyed The object of this vegetable marriage was to avert misfortune The prince had been married twice, and no son and heir had been born, but it was hoped by destroying his third wife, the tree, his fourth venture would prove fortunate On the Nosári creek are reared the Towers of Silence, for the reception of the Parsí dead About the town are scattered the residences of many Parsí merchants who have retired from business in Bombay and the Presidency provincial towns The Pársís have a fire temple in the town Nosári Sub-division had (1881) a total of 47,507 inhabitants, and a land revenue of £29,143 Area of Sub-division, 119 square miles.

Nowgong (*Naogaon*)—District in the Chief Commissionership of Assam, lying between 25° 45' and 26° 40' N lat., and between 92° and 93° 54' E long Nowgong forms one of the central Districts of the Brahmaputra valley, bounded on the north by the Brahmaputra

river separating it from Darrang District; on the east by Sibságar District and the Nágá Hills; on the south by the Khásí and Jaintia Hills; and on the west by Kámrúp District, the Kalang river marking the boundary for the greater part of the distance. Area, 3417 square miles. Population (1881) 310,579. The civil station and administrative head-quarters of the District are at NOWGONG TOWN, situated on the east bank of the Kalang river.

Physical Aspects.—The greater portion of Nowgong District presents the appearance of a wide plain, much overgrown with jungle and cane-brakes. It is intersected by numerous rivers and streams, and dotted with shallow marshes. The general line of drainage follows the inclination of the Brahmaputra valley from east to west. In the north-eastern corner of the District, the Míkír Hills encroach upon the plain and approach the Brahmaputra. These hills are long ranges averaging from one to two thousand feet in height, the highest point being about three thousand five hundred feet above sea-level. Their area is estimated to be about 60 miles in length from north to south, by from 35 to 40 miles in breadth from east to west. They are generally table-shaped at the summits, but their slope is very steep, and in places can only be ascended by people of the plains by means of steps cut in their sides. Both hills and valleys are covered with heavy jungle, except where they have been reclaimed by the Míkírs for the purposes of cultivation. The Kámákhyá Hills—a small range stretching from the south bank of the Brahmaputra to the north bank of the Kalang river—are about two hundred feet high, flat on the top, and easy of ascent; in some places rocky, and in others covered with dense jungle. A considerable portion of one of these hills, the Kámákhyá Parbat, on which there is a temple sacred to the goddess Durgá, is now under tea cultivation. Besides these hills, a good deal of hilly and broken ground belonging to the Khásí and Jaintia hill system is included in Nowgong District.

The chief river of Nowgong, and the only one navigable throughout the year by steamers and large native cargo boats, is the Brahmaputra, which forms the entire northern boundary of the District. The principal offshoot of the Brahmaputra, and the second largest river, is the Kalang, which issues from the parent stream in the north-east of the District, flows a tortuous south and south-westerly course, till it rejoins the Brahmaputra on the western border of the District, about 15 miles above Gauháti town. Although the upper mouth of the Kalang is closed at certain seasons by a large sandbank, it is a valuable means of communication, and is navigable throughout its course by large native boats for about six months in the year. Another smaller offshoot of the Brahmaputra is the Leteri. The numerous tributaries of the Brahmaputra are hill streams, all rising in the

southern ranges, and flowing in a north westerly direction. The principal are the Dhaneswari (Dhansiri), Kaliáni, Dikharu, and Deopani. The Diju, Nanái, Dikharu, Jamuna, Kápili, Barpáni, Dimál, and Kiling all pour their waters either direct or through other channels into the Kalang and so into the Brahmaputra, and are more or less navigable by good sized boats for a considerable portion of the year. During the rainy season about 100 minor streams and watercourses are navigable by small boats.

The extensive forests and grass wastes of Nowgong are sources of considerable profit to the people, as supplying building materials and firewood, as well as affording pasture for the cattle. The most valuable forest timber is the *sál*, but few trees of large girth have survived the days when contractors from Bengal were allowed to cut down timber at their will. Young plantations however are now being carefully preserved. In 1883-84 there were 5128 acres of forest land specially protected by the Forest Department in three reserves, namely, Kholahát, 1878 acres, Daboka, 520 acres and Diju, 2730 acres. There was also an unreserved forest area in the same year of 221,957 acres or 346 square miles. The pasture lands of Nowgong District are held in common, as the greater portion of the District is waste, no restrictions have been put upon cattle grazing, nor is any revenue derived from the pasture lands. The chief jungle products consist of lac, beeswax, Brazil moad and *udil* (a gum) collected by the Mikírs. Good building stone and limestone abound at Panimur. Coal and limestone of excellent quality are found in some parts of the bed of the Jamuná and Dhaneswari rivers. Wild beasts of all kinds are numerous, causing an average of 50 deaths a year. A Government reward of £2 is paid for a tiger's head and of 10s for a bear's.

History.—Nowgong District possesses no history apart from the Province of Assam generally. The only site of archæological interest is the temple on Kámákhyá Hill mentioned above. This temple, as well as the more famous one of the same name in Kamrúp District, is associated with the founder of the Kuch Behar dynasty, who is variously reported to have been either its original builder or restorer. It is said to have been originally a Buddhist shrine and to have been restored in 1565 by Rájá Nar Náráyan Singh, himself a Buddhist. Indeed local tradition asserts that Kámákhyá gave its name to the entire valley of Assam, during that troubled period which intervened between the downfall of the old Hindu kingdom of Kamrúp and the arrival of the Ahams. Both Bijni and Darrang, on the north of the Brahmaputra, which became appanages of younger members of the Kuch Behar family, are spoken of as included within 'the Kámákhyá Kshettra.'

It is impossible to fix with certainty the date when the Ahams first obtained possession of this region. Their capital was situated in the neighbouring District of Sibságar farther up the valley; but they had established themselves as low down as Gauháti in the beginning of the 17th century, when they successfully repelled the Muhammadans. When the British drove out the Burmese and annexed Assam, as an incident in the first Anglo-Burmese war, Nowgong was at first administered as an integral portion of Kámrúp District; all beyond was suffered to remain under various native rulers. The District of Nowgong was formed into an independent revenue unit in 1832. Since that date, several changes in jurisdiction have taken place. In 1843, the Sub-division of Golághát, on the farther bank of the Dhaneswari, was transferred to the neighbouring District of Sibságar; and in 1867 the area was still further diminished by the erection of the unsurveyed mountains towards the south-east into a new District, under the name of the Nágá Hills.

People.—In Robinson's *Descriptive Account of Assam*, published in 1841, the population of Nowgong District is given at about 90,000 souls. An official estimate in 1853 returned the number at 241,000. The first real enumeration, based upon trustworthy data, was the general Census of 1871–72, which in this District was not effected simultaneously in a single night, as in Bengal, but was spread over the whole month of November 1871. The result disclosed a total population of 256,390 persons, residing in 1293 *mauzás* or villages and in 44,050 houses. The last enumeration was in 1881, when a synchronous Census was effected on the night of the 17th February. This enumeration disclosed a total population of 310,579 souls, showing an increase (partly, however, supposed to be due to errors in the Census of 1871) of 54,189, or 21·14 per cent.

The results of the Census of 1881 may be summarized as follows:—Area of District, 3417 square miles, with 1494 towns and villages, and 52,871 houses. Total population, 310,579, namely, males 160,480, and females 150,099. Average density of population, 90·9 persons per square mile; villages per square mile, ·44; persons per village, 208; houses per square mile, 15·56; persons per occupied house, 5·9. Classified according to age and sect, the population in 1881 consisted of—under 15 years of age, males 66,212, and females 62,502; total children, 128,714, or 41·4 per cent. of the population: 15 years and upwards, males 94,268, and females 87,597; total adults, 181,865, or 58·6 per cent.

Religious and Ethnical Classification.—The Hindus (as loosely grouped together for religious purposes) number 249,710, or 80·4 per cent. of the District population; Muhammadans, 12,074, or 3·9 per cent.; Christians, 254; Jains, 32; Brahmos, 31; and non-Hindu

aboriginal tribes (Mikirs, Garos, and Kukis), 48,478, or 15 6 cent The ethnical division of the population shows 50 Europea Americans, and Eurasians, 9 Nepális, 159 630 aborigines and sem Hinduized aborigines, 138 467 Hindus sub divided according to caste 12,074 Muhammadans, and 349 'others principally native Christian Brahmos and Jains

The great bulk of the aborigines by race are composed of Mikirs Lalungs, and Cacharis The Mikirs who number 47 497 persons, inhabit that part of the District known as the Mikir Hills whither they are said to have immigrated in recent times from the mountains farther south They are a peaceable and industrious race cultivating the hillside according to the primitive mode of agriculture known as *jum* They form clearings in the jungle by fire and raise crops of rice and cotton without any other implement of agriculture than the *dao* or hill knife After three or four years continuous tillage they abandon their fields for fresh clearings. The Lalungs numbering 41 695 and the Cacharis, numbering 12 555, are both reported to have immigrated from the hills of Cachar during the rule of the Aham kings. They now live in the plains, and have become more or less Hinduized in manners and religion, and are included among the Hindus of the Census returns, while the Mikirs still retain their aboriginal forms of faith The other aboriginal tribes inhabiting Nowgong District are— Gáros, 837, Kukis, 143 and Nága 1 A few Urdons Santals and Kols from Chutiá Nágpur, are employed as labourers on the tea gardens.

Of the semi Hinduized aborigines of the Census Report the most numerous tribe is the Koch (42 878) descendants of a people once dominant throughout the country, and identical with the Rajbansis of Bengal, who have rejected their original name In Assam however, the appellation of Koch is held in comparative honour as may be inferred from the local dictum that aboriginal converts do not become pure Koch until seven generations after their admission into the Hindu caste system The Ahams the last race of conquerors who have given their name to the Province, number only 5965 in Nowgong they have now sunk into the common cultivating class The Chutiyas (8055) are a tribe of the same origin as the Ahams and are said to have preceded them in their migration from the hills of Burma The Doms (25 553) are a race especially numerous in Assam, where they occupy a much more respectable position than in Bengal or the North Western Provinces they accept Kolitás in preference to Brahmans as their spiritual guides.

Among Hindus proper, the Bráhmans are unusually strongly represented, numbering 7502, the Rájputs number only 77, and the Kayasths, 2312 The most numerous caste is the Kolitá (23,144),

the former priesthood of the country, who now rank as pure Súdras, and are engaged in agriculture or Government service. Other Hindu castes include the following:—Keut, or Kewat, 17,896; Kátání, 16,609; Boria, 9674; Chandál, 7243; Jugí, 7012; Patiyá, 3758; and Harí, 2772.

The Musalmáns, 12,074 in number, are supposed to be the descendants partly of artisans introduced by the Aham kings, and partly of soldiers left by the Mughal armies. There are a few recent Muhammadan immigrants from Dacca among the class of shopkeepers. The great majority belong to the Faráizí or reforming sect, but they are not actively fanatical. The native Christians, 204 in number, are attached to the American Baptist Mission, which has had a branch stationed in Nowgong since 1840, and supports several schools. The Brahma Samáj, or theistic sect of Hindus, has a few followers among the Bengális in Government service.

As throughout the rest of Assam, the population is entirely rural. There is no town with as many as 5000 inhabitants. The largest place is NOWGONG TOWN, with only 4248 persons in 1881. Out of a total of 1494 villages returned in the Census Report, as many as 926 contain fewer than two hundred inhabitants; 502 from two to five hundred; 61 from five hundred to a thousand; 4 from one to two thousand; and 1 from three to five thousand.

Material Condition of the People.—As a rule, the people are remarkably well off, and their condition is steadily improving. They are able easily to raise sufficient for their own requirements from their plots of land; and hired labour is difficult to procure even on the tea plantations, where the work is very light. As far back as 1872-73, the Deputy Commissioner of the District reported—'Wherever I go, even in the heart of the *mufassal*, and away from the public thoroughfares, I am struck with the look of real comfort about the homesteads of the *ráyats*. The appearance of their villages and *barís*, with the herds of cattle, and with the pigs and poultry roaming about, confirms me in the belief that the peasantry are well-to-do and rich in the possession of a goodly stock of this world's goods as far as their own wants and requirements are concerned.' The dress of a well-to-do shopkeeper or trader usually consists of a waistcloth (*dhutí*), a turban, a close-fitting long coat (*chapkan*), a cotton shawl, and a pair of shoes. The clothing of an ordinary husbandman is composed simply of a waistcloth and a cotton shawl over the shoulders. There are a few brick-built shops in the District, but they are quite exceptional. The dwelling of an ordinary cultivator consists of from two to four rooms, constructed of bamboo, canes, reeds, and grass, with sometimes a few timber posts. The food of a prosperous trader consists of rice, split-peas, clarified butter (*ghí*), oil, vegetables, fish, milk, and salt; while that of a peasant ordinarily consists of rice, split-peas, occasionally fish,

vegetables, oil, salt some water plants and acid fruits, and also a litt potash or alkali, obtained by burning plantains

As regards occupation the Census of 1881 returned the male popu lation of Nowgong District under the following six main headings — (1) Official and professional class 771 (2) domestic class 360 (3) commercial class including merchants traders carriers etc 1684 (4) agricultural and pastoral class including gardeners 92 402 (5) industrial class including all manufacturers and artisans 1811 (6) indefinite and non productive class comprising general labourers and male children, 63 452

Agriculture, etc—The staple crop throughout the District is rice which supplies two main harvests (1) The *sali* or *lahi* is sown about June in low lying lands, transplanted in the following month and reaped in December This furnishes the finest grain and the larger portion of the food supply (2) The *ahu* is sown on comparatively high lands about March, and reaped about July leaving the field ready for a second or cold weather crop of oil seeds or pulses A third variety of *bao* or long stemmed rice is grown to some extent in marshes and along the banks of rivers The area under rice cultivation has increased by about one third within the past five years The only other cereal is Indian corn grown by the Mikirs on their forest clear ings. Miscellaneous crops include mustard grown as an oil seed several varieties of pulses sugar cane jute rhea or China grass *pan* or betel leaf, and tobacco Cotton is cultivated by the Mikirs The Revenue Survey of 1872 returned only 244 315 acres under cultivation or one ninth of the total area By 1883-84 the cultivated area had increased to 291 069 acres of which 32 582 acres produced two crops annually The crop area was thus sub-divided—Rice 185 15? acres other food grains 15 716 acres oil seeds 41 244 acres sugar cane, 4663 acres cotton 3846 acres coffee 100 acres tea 10 786 acres miscellaneous 29 582 acres of which 14 174 acres were under food and 15 408 acres under non food crops Manure in the form of cow dung is used only for tobacco and sugar cane Irrigation is commonly practised by the aboriginal cultivators who divert the water from the hill streams by means of artificial channels The principle of fallow land is acknowledged in the maxim that *dus* land cannot be kept ontinuously under crops for more than three years The abundance f spare land on all sides permits the cultivator to abandon his fields or a new clearing as soon as their natural fertility becomes impaired overnment is the immediate landlord of the whole soil, and grants ases direct to the cultivators at the following rates of rent —For *stu* or homestead land 6s an acre, *rupit* or low rice land 3s. 9d acre, *faringhati* or high land, 3s an acre. The average out turn n an acre of *rupit* land is estimated at about 18 cwts. of *sali*

paddy or unhusked rice; from an acre of *faringháti* land, 13 cwts. of *áus* paddy, together with 11 cwts. of mustard seed.

Rates of wages have greatly increased in recent years, owing to the introduction of tea cultivation, and it is often difficult to procure labour at all. Ordinary day-labourers now obtain from 6d. to 9d. a day, as compared with 1½d. thirty years ago, while agricultural labourers, where not remunerated in kind, receive about 12s. a month; skilled artisans receive from 1s. to 2s. a day. The price of food-grains has nearly trebled within the past thirty-five years. Common rice sold at 2s. 8d. per cwt. in 1838, at 3s. 5d. in 1860, at 5s. 5d. in 1870, and at 7s. 4½d. in 1883-84. In 1870, best rice imported from Bengal fetched 13s. 8d. per cwt., and common unhusked rice, 2s. 6d. During the Orissa famine of 1866, the price of common rice rose to 8s. 2d. per cwt.

The District is exposed to the three natural calamities of blight, flood, and drought, each of which has been known to seriously affect the general harvest. In 1822, swarms of locusts caused a complete destruction of the crops; a widespread famine resulted, and the price of unhusked rice is traditionally reported to have risen to £1, 2s. 6d. per cwt. Similar damage on a smaller scale was inflicted by locusts in 1840, and again in 1858. The low-lying lands are annually inundated by the rising of the Brahmaputra and other rivers, but these floods rarely injure the general harvest. The inundations, however, of 1825 and 1842 are said to have caused much distress; but the rivers are on such a scale, and the configuration of the country is such, that it is almost hopeless to think of constructing protective works, in the shape of embankments. Drought is almost entirely unknown, and has never been severe; the only scarcity due to this cause happened in 1835, when there was a great deficiency in the local rainfall. Altogether, the danger of famine from either flood or drought may be put aside as most unlikely.

Manufactures, etc.—The manufactures of Nowgong are only sufficient to meet the local demand. The principal industries are the following:—Weaving of silk and cotton cloth; jewellers' work in gold and silver; basket and mat making; and the making of various utensils from brass, bell-metal, and iron. Three varieties of silk are woven, of varying degrees of fineness:—*Pát*, from the cocoons of a worm fed on the mulberry; *mugá*, from a worm fed on the *sum* and *soálu* trees; and *eriá*, from a worm fed on the castor-oil plant (Ricinus communis). Other specialities are a kind of cotton cloth, with finely woven borders of gold or silver thread; and *jápís* or broad-brimmed hats, which serve as umbrellas.

The commerce of the District is chiefly conducted by river, at the following permanent markets:—Nowgong town, Puránígudám, Kaliábar,

Rahá, and Chápari mukh The principal articles of export are tea, mustard seed, cotton, jungle products, and a little rice, in return for which are received salt, sugar, oil, *ghi* or clarified butter, and miscellaneous European goods The profits of trade are almost entirely in the hands of Márwárí traders from Rájputána The principal means of communication are afforded by the rivers but except the Brahmaputra and the Kalang, none of these are open for navigation all the year through The principal line of road is the Assam Grand Trunk Road which runs from Dhubri *via* Gauháti to Sibságar and Dibrugarh at the upper end of the Assam valley, passing for 96 miles through Nowgong District It crosses several rivers, all of which are bridged with the exception of the Kalang, Deopání, Dimal, and Kiling

The cultivation and manufacture of tea is largely conducted with European capital and under European supervision but the soil and climate are said to be less favourable than in Upper Assam The tea plant was first introduced into Nowgong about 1854 but the industry was not carried on to any great extent until after 1861 when the speculative demand for tea property by companies and private individuals led to extravagant sums being paid for suitable land This season of abnormal activity was naturally followed by a period of depression from which the industry is now beginning to recover The difficulty of imported labour has at last settled itself and at the present time large extensions are being made to the old-established gardens The statistics for 1874 showed a total of 2878 acres under cultivation with an out turn of 387 085 lbs The number of European assistants was 5, with 51 native assistants the total number of labourers employed 2553, of whom 1136 were imported under contract from Bengal or other parts of India Since 1874 the cultivation and manufacture of tea has advanced with rapid strides In 1881-82 out of 15 306 acres taken up for tea cultivation in 64 gardens 10 011 acres were under mature plant yielding an out turn of 2 494 104 lbs of leaf In 1883 the area under tea was 10 786 acres yielding an out turn of 3 703 475 lbs, or an average of 382 lbs per acre of mature plant On the 31st December 1881 a total of 6074 labourers were employed on the tea gardens, of whom 1902 had been imported under the provisions of the Labour Acts

Administration —The administrative staff of Nowgong District consists of a Deputy Commissioner 2 extra Assistant Commissioners, Assistant Superintendent of Police District Engineer and Civil Surgeon In 1870-71 the net revenue amounted to £69 073 towards which the land tax contributed £38 000 or 55 per cent and *abkari* or excise £26,550, or 38 per cent, the net expenditure was £12,573, or less than one fifth of the revenue In 1881-82 the revenue of the District amounted to £75,064, of which the land tax contributed

£44,984, or 59·9 per cent., and excise £16,936, or 22·5 per cent. The expenditure on the District in the same year was £19,153. The land revenue has multiplied itself nearly fourfold within the past thirty years, despite a diminution in the area of the District. In 1883-84 there were 11 magisterial and 4 civil courts open. For police purposes the District is divided into 5 *thánás* or police circles. In 1883 the regular police force consisted of 143 officers and men, maintained at a total cost of £2418. These figures show one policeman to every 24 square miles of area, or to every 2172 of the population, the average cost of maintenance being 14s. 1¾d. per square mile, or 1¼d. per head. There is no municipal police force in Nowgong, and the *chaukidárs* or village watch of Bengal are not found anywhere throughout Assam proper. During 1883–84, the total number of persons convicted of any offence, great or small, was 435, or 1 person to every 714 of the population. By far the greater number of the convictions were for petty offences. There is one jail at Nowgong town. In 1883, the daily average number of prisoners was 71·98, of whom ·54 were women. These figures show one prisoner to every 4313 of the District population. The total cost of the jail was £464, or £6, 9s. 5d. per prisoner.

In the spread of education, Nowgong ranks second to Kámrúp among all the Districts of Assam; but as compared with Bengal, the entire Province is in a backward condition. In 1856 there were only 12 schools in the District, attended by 679 pupils. The figures for 1860 show a considerable falling off, but by 1870 the number of schools had increased to 39, and the number of pupils to 1373. This improvement was due to the reform by which grants of money were awarded to vernacular schools; and since the latter date, the benefit of the grant-in-aid rules has been further extended to the village schools or *páthsálás*. By the close of 1873 the schools had risen to 85, and the pupils to 2357. In 1883–84 there were altogether 133 schools under Government inspection, attended by 5257 pupils, including 4 girls' schools with 77 pupils. There were also in the same year 14 private uninspected schools, attended by 315 pupils. The chief educational establishment is the Government English school at Nowgong town, attended by 130 pupils. The American Baptist Mission maintains 2 normal schools.

Nowgong District is divided for administrative purposes into the 5 *thánás* or police circles of Nowgong, Rahá, Jági, Kaliábar, and Dobáka The Sub-divisional system has not yet been extended to the District, and there are no municipalities. The number of *mauzás* or village units for the collection of the land revenue amounts to 65, each under its own *mauzádár* or native fiscal officer.

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Nowgong is considered extremely

unhealthy, owing partly to the numerous swamps and partly to the utter disregard of sanitary precautions displayed by the native population Conservancy is enforced only in that part of the civil station which is occupied by Europeans The prevailing diseases are fever, bowel complaints, small pox, cholera, cutaneous and venereal complaints, rheumatism, goitre, elephantiasis and leprosy Cholera frequently occurs in a sporadic form, and it is said to make its appearance as an epidemic about once in every four years It has been observed that this disease invariably approaches from the west advancing along the banks of the Brahmaputra and minor streams In 1883 the total number of registered deaths in Nowgong District was 6997 showing a death rate of 22 8 per thousand, a rate considerably below the truth although fair improvement in the registration of vital statistics has been made of late years Of the registered deaths in 1883, 3586 were assigned to fevers, 1560 to cholera, 81 to small pox 968 to bowel complaints, 56 to snake bite or wild beasts, and 744 to other causes The charitable dispensary at Nowgong station afforded medical relief to 2570 in door and out door patients in 1883 In recent years cattle plague apparently introduced from Bengal, has committed great havoc in this District, as throughout the rest of Assam In 1867 an infectious disease, supposed to be identical with the rinderpest of Europe, is said to have destroyed one fourth of the total number of cattle Even wild animals did not escape, tigers, buffaloes, and deer being found dead in the jungle with all the symptoms of the disease In 1870 this epizootic again made its appearance, and out of 3210 cattle attacked, 2199 or 68 per cent are ascertained to have died The average annual rainfall at the civil station for a period of 29 years ending 1881 was 80 60 inches In 1883 the rainfall amounted to 72 32 inches or 8 28 inches below the average No thermometrical returns are available [For further information regarding Nowgong, see the *Statistical Account of Assam* by W W Hunter, vol 1 pp. 171–223 (London Trubner & Co 1879), *A Descriptive Account of Assam* by W Robinson (1841) *Report on the Province of Assam*, by Mr A J Moffat Mills (Calcutta, 18 4) See also *Memorandum on the Revenue Administration of the Lower Provinces of Bengal*, by Mr D J M'Neile (1873) the *Assam Census Report* for 1881, and the several Administration and Departmental Reports from 1880 to 1884]

Nowgong—Town and administrative head-quarters of Nowgong District, situated on the east bank of the Kalang river Population (1871) 2883, (1881) 4248

Nowgong (*Nagaon* or *Naugaon*)—Town and cantonment in Bundelkhand, Central India, situated between the British District of Hamirpur and the Native State of Chhatarpur Population (1881) 7492, namely, 5391 Hindus, 2092 Muhammadans, and 9 'others' The

south from the former, and 11 north-west from the latter. The Sankh is here crossed by a well-built masonry bridge of 7 arches. Near the town is a pleasure-ground of considerable size, which contains the mausoleum of Gunna Begam, wife of Ghází-ud-dín Khán, Wazír of Ahmad Sháh, and afterwards of the Emperor Alamgír II. (Thornton).

Núr Mahal.—Town in Phillaur *tahsíl*, Jálandhar District, Punjab. Situated in lat. 31° 6′ N., and long. 75° 37′ 45″ E., 16 miles south of Jálandhar town. The site was once occupied by an earlier town, which was restored by Jahángír, from whose empress, Núr Jahán, it derives its present name. An extensive *sarái*, built at that time, forms the chief object of interest. Important Muhammadan fair, held annually at the tomb of a local saint. Population (1868) 7866; (1881) 8161, namely, Hindus, 4353; Muhammadans, 3559; and Sikhs, 249. Number of houses, 1209. Municipal revenue (1883-84), £457, or an average of 1s. 1¼d per head of the population. A considerable trade is carried on in wheat and sugar. Post-office, police station, dispensary, Government vernacular middle school, 2 girls' schools, and a few indigenous elementary schools.

Núrokal-betta (*Toriandamondu*).—Highest peak of the Núrokal range of mountains, on the south-western spur of the Merkára plateau, Western Gháts, in the territory of Coorg, forming part of the upper watershed of the Káveri (Cauvery) river. Distant about 12 miles from Merkára, on the Siddapur Ghát road. The view from the summit is one of the finest in Coorg.

Núrpur.—*Tahsíl* of Kángra District, Punjab, lying between 31° 58′ and 32° 30′ N. lat., and between 75° 38′ and 76° 11′ E. long. Area (1881), 514 square miles, with 192 towns and villages, 13,693 houses, and 23,277 families. Population (1881) 105,244, namely, males 58,191, and females 47,053; average density of population, 205 persons per square mile. Classified according to religion, the population consists of—Hindus, 88,268; Muhammadans, 16,781; Sikhs, 183; Jains, 4; and Christians, 8. Of the 192 towns and villages, 128 contain less than five hundred inhabitants; 37 from five hundred to a thousand; 24 from one to two thousand; and 3 between three thousand and ten thousand. The average cultivated area for the five years 1877-78 to 1881-82 is returned at 220 square miles, the area under the principal crops being as follows:—Rice, 31,409 acres; wheat, 26,871 acres; Indian corn, 23,708 acres; barley, 21,451 acres; gram, 2119 acres; sugar-cane, 2977 acres; cotton, 1407 acres; and vegetables, 3146 acres. Revenue of the *tahsíl*, £10,738. The *tahsíldár*, who is the only local administrative officer, presides over 1 civil and 1 revenue court; number of police circles (*thánás*), 3; regular police, 45 men; village watchmen (*chaukídárs*), 220.

Núrpur.—Town and municipality in Kángra District, Punjab, and

head quarters of Núrpur *tahsil* Situated in lat 32° 18′ 10″ N, and lon 75° 55′ 30″ E, on a small tributary of the Chakki torrent, 2000 ft above sea level, and 37 miles west of Dharmsala sanitarium Nurpur was formerly the capital of a small Native State It is picturesquely perched upon the side of a hill crowned by the ruins of a fine old fort, erected by Rája Basu who removed his capital hither from the plains Nurpur was for long the chief town of the District, both in size and commercial importance but owing to the decay of its chief industry, shawl weaving, it now presents a poverty stricken and depopulated appearance The population of Nurpur, which was returned at 9928 in 1868, had fallen to 7337 in 1875 and to 5744 in 1881 Classified according to religion the population in the latter year comprised—Hindus, 3298, Muhammadans, 2432 Sikhs 8, Jain, 1, and Christians, 5 Number of houses 982 Municipal income (1883-84), £558, being at the rate of 1s 11d per head of the population

The principal inhabitants are Rájputs, Kashmiris, and Khattris the last named being descendants of fugitives from Lahore who fled from the exactions of the later Muhammadan rulers The Kashmiris settled in Nurpur in 1783, driven from their country by famine, and were reinforced by others from a like cause in 1833 They carried with them the national manufacture of their native valley, that of shawls of *pashmina* wool and made the town famous for the production of these and other woollen cloths. The value of the annual out turn of *pashmina* goods was estimated in 1875 to be about two *lakhs* of rupees, or £20,000 The shawls, however were inferior to those of Kashmir even to those of Amritsar and other towns in the Punjab plains They found a local sale within the Province but seldom penetrated to foreign markets The *pashm* used was imported in part direct from Ladakh in part from Amritsar Owing to the collapse in the shawl trade which followed the Franco Prussian war, the trade has dwindled and is now confined to the manufacture on a small scale of shawls and woollen fabrics of an inferior description The Kashmiris thus out of employ are being encouraged to take to sericulture Nurpur contains a large *bázár*, and as it forms an entrepot of supplies from the plains, as well as of exit for the trade from the north still presents a comparatively busy appearance The public buildings consist of the usual *tahsili* courts and offices a police station post office dispensary, school house, staging bungalow and two *sarais*

Nusseerábád. — Cantonment in Ajmere Rájputana.—*See* NASIRABAD

Nusseerábád.—*Táluk* and town in Shikárpur District, Sind, Bombay Presidency —*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád. – Town in Rai Bareli District, Oudh.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád.—Town in Khándesh District, Bombay Presidency.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Nusseerábád.—Town in Maimansingh District, Bengal.—*See* NASIRABAD.

Núzvíd.—Town in Kistna District, Madras Presidency, and head-quarters of the Núzvíd *zamíndárí.* Lat. 16° 47′ 25″ N., long. 80° 53′ 20″ E. Population (1881) 5657; number of houses, 1213. Hindus number 4824; Muhammadans, 827; and Christians, 6. The town is situated on rising ground about 24 miles north-east of Bezwáda; around it are large tracts of jungle, which in the last century formed its chief defence. It contains an old mud fort inhabited by the *zamíndárs.* The only made road by which it can be approached is that from Penlsid, a village 15 miles to the south-east of Núzvíd. The chief feature of the town is the large gardens of cocoa-nut palms and mango trees.

Núzvíd.—*Zamíndárí* in Kistna District, Madras Presidency One of the oldest of the large estates in the District. Area, 694 square miles. Population (1881) 125,165, namely, 63,291 males and 61,874 females, occupying 21,219 houses in 1 town and 231 villages. Hindus number 120,407; Muhammadans, 3903; and Christians, 855. The six divisions of the *zamíndárí* are—Ventrapragada, with an annual rental of £8513, and paying a *peshkash* or quit-rent of £1570; Weygurú, rental £8513, *peshkash* £1570; Mirjapuram, rental £8657, *peshkash* £1593; Kapileswarapuram, rental £8617, *peshkash* £1589; Teleprolu, rental £8596, *peshkash* £1585; and Medura, rental £8864, *peshkash* £1635.

Nyamti.—Village in Shimogá District, Mysore State. Lat. 14° 9′ 10″ N., long. 75° 36′ 55″ E. Population (1881) 2753; municipal revenue (1881-82), £90; rate of taxation, 8¼d. per head. Founded in the beginning of the present century, Nyamti has become a centre of through trade between the hill country and the plains. The merchants all belong to the Lingáyat sect. The grain, coarse sugar, and areca-nút produced in the neighbourhood are exchanged for cotton cloth and other manufactured wares brought up from Bellary (Madras) and Dhárwár (Bombay).

Nyaung-dun (or *Yandoon*).—Town 60 miles north-west of Rangoon, at the junction of the Pan-hlaing or Nyaung-dun creek with the Irawadi, in Thongwa District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma. It is the seat of a large transit trade between the upper part of the Irawadi valley and Rangoon. The principal imports are wheat, gram, beans, pickled tea, oil, onions, silk. The exports are *nga-pi,* rice (husked and unhusked), piece-goods, crockery, earthenware, tobacco, and areca-nuts. Small steamers occasionally run between this town and Rangoon, making the trip, with a favourable tide, in one day.

Nyehattee.—Town in the District of the Twenty-four Parganas, Bengal, and a railway station on the Eastern Bengal Railway.—See NAIHATI.

O

Obalagandi.—The western pass from the Ramandrug plateau in the Sandur State, Madras Presidency.—See ABLAGANDI.

Ochterlony (so called after Colonel James Ochterlony).—A beautiful valley 39 square miles in extent, at an average elevation of 3000 feet above sea level, situated below the south-western wall of the Nilgiri Hills, Madras Presidency, between 11° 23' and 11° 29' 15" N. lat. and between 76° 27' and 76° 34' 15" E. long. This valley was first explored by Colonel J. Ochterlony, R.E., in 1844-45, and was at that time covered with virgin forest. Coffee cultivation was introduced in the valley at that time, and there are now (1883) 24 coffee estates occupying about 4000 acres. Cinchona and tea also flourish. The whole valley has been converted into a busy English settlement, employing over 5000 native hands. The Gwynd estate contains one unbroken block of 800 acres of coffee in full bearing. The expenditure in the valley is about £90,000 annually.

Od.—Town in Anand Sub-division, Kaira District, Bombay Presidency. Lat. 22° 37' N., long. 73° 10' E. Population (1872) 8423; and (1881) 8500.

Oel.—Town in Kheri District, Oudh, 8 miles west of Lakhimpur, on the road to Sitápur. It lies in lat. 27° 50' 30" N. and long. 80° 46' 55" E., on a plain of fine clay soil, highly cultivated and studded with trees, intermixed with clusters of bamboos. The two villages Oel and Dhakua adjoin each other, and form one town, but the dwelling-houses have a wretched appearance, consisting of ruinous mud walls and thatched roofs. Population (1881) 4159, namely, 3572 Hindus and 587 Muhammadans. Handsome temple to Mahadeo. Sugar manufactories.

Okhaldangá.—Village in Kumáun District, North-Western Provinces, situated on the craggy bank of the river Kosila, on the route from Moradábád to Almora, 65 miles north-east of the former town, in lat. 29° 14' 20" N., and long. 79° 39' E. Picturesque situation. Population (1881) 115. The rice of Okhaldangá is said to be remarkably fine, and bears in commerce the name of Pilibhit rice, being brought to market in that town. Elevation above sea, about 2000 feet.

Ok-kan.—River in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma. Rises in the Pegu Yoma range, and falls into the Hlaing at [illegible]gon. A narrow stream, but navigable during the rains b[illegible]

boats as far as Ok-kan village. Large quantities of teak and other timber are floated down the stream into the Hlaing.

Ok-kan.—*Village in the Ok-kan revenue circle, Hanthawadi District,* Lower Burma; situated about 5 miles west of the Hlaing river. It contains two public rest-houses, a monastery, and two square-built pagodas. Ok-kan is said to have been founded about 300 years ago by a Talaing.

Old Agartala.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal.—*See* AGARTALA, OLD.

Old Maldah.—Town in Maldah District, Bengal.—*See* MALDAH.

Old Udaipur.—Village in Hill Tipperah State, Bengal; the ancient capital of Udai Mánikya Bahádur, who reigned over Tipperah in the latter half of the 16th century. Situated on the left bank of the river Gúmtí, a few miles higher up the river than the village known at present by the same name. The palace and all the buildings connected with it have been long deserted, and are now overgrown with dense jungle. The enclosing wall can with difficulty be traced amidst the profusion of vegetation. There are still many houses in excellent preservation within the wall referred to, which seems to have once surrounded all the buildings in the occupation of the Rájá and his family. Others again are fast falling to the ground, but enough remains to show their former strength, and the care with which they were constructed. The walls are rarely less than 4 feet in thickness, and the floors of most of the buildings are raised high above the ground; the brick foundation in one case having an elevation of about 10 feet. There is one two-storied building with large doorways on each side of the upper storey, and on three sides of the lower storey. The doorways are arched, and the neat and simple carving above them is still almost unaffected by the length of time that the place has been deserted. Near this house are several large brick buildings, apparently monuments erected to the memory of deceased Rájás or their queens. The two principal ones are raised on the same brick foundation, and the open space inside each is so small that there is utter darkness in the interior. On the ground outside one of the buildings in the enclosure, there lay, until lately, an iron cannon 8 feet in length, bearing a Hindustání inscription on a small copper plate. How it came to Udaipur the hill people do not know, but evidently it was either captured from or left by the Muhammadans on the occasion of one of their inroads in the 16th or 17th century.. Every man who used to visit the spot made an obeisance before the gun, and placed on the top a leaf or branch, in the belief that if his offering was accepted, it would be miraculously removed from the position in which he placed it, and covered over by the gun. The gun was removed in 1881 to the Mahárájá's capital at Agartálá, where no such respect is now shown to it.

Olpád.—Sub division of Surat District, Bombay Presidency Boun on the north by the river Kim, on the east by Baroda territory, on south by the Tapti, and on the west by the Gulf of Cambay Ar 323 square miles. Population (1872) 57,842, (1881) 62,049 name 30,824 males and 31,225 females, dwelling in 120 villages, contain 12,782 houses. Hindus number 56 179, Muhammadans, 3711, an 'others,' 2159

The Sub-division forms an almost unbroken plain and the fields ar generally unenclosed owing to the low level and the inroads of the sea well irrigation is possible only in a few of the eastern villages Climate generally healthy Average rainfall, 30 inches The Sub division was surveyed and settled in 1869-70 for a period of 30 years Total area, 326 square miles, of which 7 square miles are occupied by the lands of alienated villages Of a total of 100 444 acres held for tillage in 1873-74 17,740 acres were fallow or under grass Of the remainder, 82 704 acres were under actual cultivation, and 1192 acres were under second crop, grain crops occupied 48,837 acres pulses, 7776 acres oil seeds, 3014 acres, fibres, 22,326 acres of which 22 321 were under cotton, and miscellaneous crops, 1943 acres In 1869 the survey disclosed 13 832 holdings, with an average area of 9 acres each, and paying an average Government land revenue of £4 1s 8½d The Sub-division in 1883 contained 1 civil and 2 criminal courts, police circles (*thánás*), 1, regular police, 41 men village watch (*chaukidárs*) 711 Land revenue, £58,492

Olpad.—Head quarters of Olpad Sub-division, Surat District Bombay Presidency, situated in lat 21° 21 N and long 72° 48 E Population (1872) 4001 Not returned in the Census Report of 1881 Besides the ordinary Sub-divisional revenue and police offices, the town is provided with a post office and dispensary

Omatwára.—Tract of country in Malwa, Central India, lying between 23° 35 and 24° 11 N lat, and between 76° 23 and 77° 16 E. long length from north to south, 60 miles breadth, 55 miles It includes the Native States of Rájgarh and Narsinghgarh and parts of Indore and Gwalior the two former States are under the political superintendence of the Bhopál Agency The tract takes its name from the Omat Rajputs a sept of the great Pramara clan, who emigrated from Udaipur (Oodeypore) at an early period, and, during the decline of the Mughal Empire overran and subjugated this part of the country Principal towns—RAJGARH and NARSINGHGARH

Ongole.—*Taluk* or Sub-division of Nellore District, Madras Presi ency Area, 797 square miles. Population (1881) 185,593, namely, 4,348 males and 94,245 females, dwelling in 2 towns and 166 villages, ntaining 34,404 houses Hindus number 176,888, Muhammadans, 67, Christians, 5131, and 'others,' 7 Ongole *taluk* consists of an

Orchhá (*Oorcha, Urchha*, also known as *Tehri* or *Tíkamgu*
Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintendenc
the Bundelkhand Agency, Central India. It lies between 24° 26' and
34' N. lat., and between 78° 28' 30" and 79° 23' E. long., to the sout
the British District of Jhánsi, being much intermixed with that Distr
Orchhá is bounded on the west by the Districts of Jhánsi and Lalitpi
on the south by Lalitpur and the States of Panna and Bijáwa
and on the east by the States of Bijáwar, Charkhári and Garrau
Estimated area, about 2000 square miles. Population (1881) 311,514,
namely, males 162,611, and females 148,903. Hindus number 294,714;
Muhammadans 9560; Jains 7233; and others, 7.

The principal towns are Tehri, the present capital; and Orchha,
the old capital. Tehri, where the Rájá now resides, is situated in the
south-west corner of the State about 40 miles from Orchha, with which
town and Baumari it is connected by road. The fort of Tíkamgarh
within the town, and also the town itself, often give their names to the
State. A great portion of the area is covered with hill jungle and poor
soil, and is thinly populated. There are some magnificent tanks in
the country, constructed by the ancestors of the ruling family. Dense
forests afford a safe shelter to robbers. In 1873-74 a gang gave
much trouble, committing ravages on villages and travellers.

The Political officer reported in 1873 that the best form of land
settlement for Orchhá is still a problem. He says: 'The native
system—under which the State, while recognising in every village
a headman who enjoys certain advantages, yet maintains itself as
the proprietor of the land, acts as banker and seed-lender for the
cultivators, and collects generally in proportion to produce or to
area cultivated—avoids sundry of the difficulties unexpectedly found
in Bundelkhand to accompany our North-Western Provinces *zamin-
dári* system of making the head villager or some one else the
proprietor, settling everything with him at a fixed amount, and
leaving him and the cultivators to borrow from the money-lender as
they need. The former plan as worked in Orchhá, while it keeps
existing cultivation fairly together, and is the lightest for the people in
a bad year, does not give stimulus to its extension by allowing villages
a sufficiently profitable interest in working up fresh land.'

The State of Orchha is the oldest and highest in rank of all the
Bundela Principalities, and was the only one of them not held in
subjection by the Peshwá. The Maráthás, however, severed from
ehri that portion which afterwards formed the State of Jhánsi. Rájá
kramáditya Mahendra was the ruling chief when the British entered
indelkhand, and with him a treaty of friendship and defensive
ance was concluded in 1812. When he died in 1834, a disputed
ession led to disturbances, but as the adoption of Sujan S

extensive plain with a superior quality of soil, yielding fine crops. Garden lands extend along the banks of streams, and the water is obtained from wells sunk in the river beds. There are few tanks and but little jungle. The *táluk* in 1883 contained 1 civil and 3 criminal courts; police circles (*thánás*), 13; regular police, 124 men. Land revenue, £34,303.

Ongole (*Vangolu*).—Town in Nellore District, Madras Presidency; situated in lat. 15° 30′ 20″ N., and long 80° 5′ 30 E., on the Músi river, 189 miles north of Madras. Population (1881) 9200; number of houses, 2286. Hindus number 7556; Muhammadans, 923; Christians, 717; and 'others,' 4. A Sub-divisional and *tahsíli* station, and at one time (1794) the *sadr* or head-quarters station of a Collectorate. Post-office, schools, etc. In 1876-77, Ongole was constituted a municipality. Municipal income in 1880-81, £845. Ongole also has a civil dispensary, at which in 1881, 204 in-patients and 1717 out-patients were attended to. The town was originally the capital of a native principality, held by the Mandapati family, who were always at war with the Rájá of Venkatagiri until finally reduced by him. The family encouraged learning, hence Ongole earned a local celebrity for its *pandits*. An important station of the American Baptist Mission.

Oodeynullah.—Battle-field in the District of the Santál Parganás, Bengal.—*See* UDHANALA.

Oodeypore.—State and town in Rájputána.—*See* UDAIPUR.

Oojein.—Town in Gwalior State, Central India.—*See* UJJAIN.

Ook-kan.—Village and river in Hanthawadi District, Pegu Division, Lower Burma.—*See* OK-KAN.

Oomercote.—*Táluk* and town in Thar and Párkar District, Sind, Bombay Presidency.—*See* UMARKOT.

Oomrawuttee. — District and town in the Haidarábád Assigned Districts (Berar).—*See* AMRAOTI.

Oomta.—Town in Baroda State (Gáekwár's territory).—*See* UMTA.

Oorcha. — State and town in Bundelkhand, Central India. — *See* ORCHHA.

Ooreettaung, East and West.—Townships and pagoda in Akyab District, Lower Burma.—*See* URIT-TAUNG.

Oossoor.—Town in Salem District, Madras Presidency.—*See* HOSUR and USUR.

Ootacamund.—Town in the Nílgiri Hills, Madras Presidency.—*See* UTAKAMAND.

Oot-hpo.—Township and town in Henzada District, Lower Burma. —*See* OT-PO.

Oot-poo.—Revenue circle in Tavoy District, Lower Burma.—*See* UT-PU.

Orai.—*Tahsíl* and town in Jaláun District, North-Western Provinces. —*See* URAI.

Orchhá (*Oorcha, Urchha*, also known as *Tehri* or *Tikamga*
Native State in Bundelkhand, under the political superintenden the Bundelkhand Agency, Central India. It lies between 24° 26' an 34' N. lat., and between 78° 28' 30" and 79° 23' E. long., to the sou the British District of Jhansi, being much intermixed with that Dist Orchhá is bounded on the west by the Districts of Jhánsi and Lalitp on the south by Lalitpur and the States of Panna and Bijáw and on the east by the States of Bijáwar, Charkhári and Garrau Estimated area, about 2000 square miles. Population (1881) 311,51 namely, males 162,611, and females 148,903. Hindus number 294,714 Muhammadans, 9560, Jains, 7233, and others, 7.

The principal towns are Tehri, the present capital, and Orchha, the old capital. Tehri, where the Rajá now resides, is situated in the south west corner of the State, about 40 miles from Orchha, with which town and Baumari it is connected by road. The fort of Tikamgarh within the town, and also the town itself, often give their names to the State. A great portion of the area is covered with hill jungle and poor soil, and is thinly populated. There are some magnificent tanks in the country, constructed by the ancestors of the ruling family. Dense forests afford a safe shelter to robbers. In 1873-74, a gang gave much trouble, committing ravages on villages and travellers.

The Political officer reported in 1873, that the best form of land settlement for Orchhá is still a problem. He says, 'The native system—under which the State, while recognising in every village a head man, who enjoys certain advantages, yet maintains itself as the proprietor of the land, acts as banker and seed lender for the cultivators, and collects generally in proportion to produce or to area cultivated—avoids sundry of the difficulties unexpectedly found in Bundelkhand to accompany our North Western Provinces *zamindári* system of making the head villager or some one else the proprietor, settling everything with him at a fixed amount, and leaving him and the cultivators to borrow from the money lender as they need. The former plan as worked in Orchhá, while it keeps existing cultivation fairly together, and is the lightest for the people in bad years, does not give stimulus to its extension by allowing villages a sufficiently profitable interest in working up fresh land.'

The State of Orchha is the oldest and highest in rank of all the Bundela Principalities, and was the only one of them not held in subjection by the Peshwá. The Maráthás, however, severed from chha that portion which afterwards formed the State of Jhánsi. Rájá kramáditya Mahendra was the ruling chief when the British entered ndelkhand, and with him a treaty of friendship and defensive ance was concluded in 1812. When he died in 1834, a disputed cession led to disturbances, but as the adoption of Sujan S

was acquiesced in by the neighbouring chiefs, the Government established him in power. Soon afterwards, Sujan Singh died, and his widow was permitted to adopt Hamír Singh, a collateral relation of the family. On Hamír Singh's death in 1874, his younger brother Mahendra Pratáp Singh, the present Maháráján, was recognised as his successor.

The gross revenue of Orchha is estimated at Rs. 900,000, but about one-half of this amount is alienated in grants to relations of the chief and others. The Rájás of Tehri used to pay a tribute of £300 to Jhánsi. This payment fell to the British Government on the annexation of Jhánsi, but it was remitted as a reward for the loyalty of the Rájá in 1857. The fixed revenue of the village of Mohanpur, amounting to £20, was also remitted at the same time. The chief was granted the title of Maháráján in 1865, and in 1882 the honorific title of '*Sawai*' was bestowed on his family. The chief is entitled to a salute of 15 guns. A military force is maintained of 200 cavalry, 4400 infantry, and 90 guns, with 100 gunners.

Orchhá (*Oorcha*, *Urchha*, *Tikamgarh*).—Old capital of Orchhá State, Bundelkhand, Central India; situated in lat. 25° 21′ N., and long. 78° 42′ E., on both banks of the river Betwá. Population (1881) 18,344, namely, males 9439 and females 8905. Hindus number 13,414; Muhammadans, 3836; and 'others,' 1094. There is an imposing fortress, containing the former residence of the Rájá, and a palace built for the accommodation of the Emperor Jahángír. A wooden bridge connects the fortress with the remainder of the town, which would otherwise be cut off during the rains by a branch of the river.

Orissa.—A Province of British India, forming a Division or Commissionership under the jurisdiction of the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal; situated between 19° 28′ and 22° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 30″ and 87° 31′ 30″ E. long. Along with its Tributary States, it forms the extreme south-western portion of the Bengal Presidency, being bounded on the north and north-east by Chutiá Nágpur and Bengal Proper; on the east and south-east by the Bay of Bengal; on the south by Madras Presidency (Ganjám District); and on the west by the Central Provinces. British Orissa is of almost equal extent with Saxony. It contains a total area of 9053 square miles, and a population (1881) of 3,730,735 persons. In addition, the Tributary States of Orissa have an area of 15,187 square miles, and a population of 1,469,142. British and Tributary Orissa together have an area almost exactly equal to that of Oudh, with a population almost exactly half that of Oudh.

Physical Aspects.—Orissa consists of two distinct territories—a fertile alluvial delta, comprising the three British Districts of CUTTACK, BALASOR, and PURI; bounded on the east and south by the Bay of Bengal; and on the west and north by the second distinct territory—

a wild region of sparsely populated TRIBUTARY HILL STATES, which intervenes between the alluvial delta and the Central Indian plateau

The Orissa delta is formed from the deposits of three great rivers—the MAHANADI on the south, the BRAHMANI in the centre, and the BAITARANI on the north The first two of these take their rise deep in Central India, the third has a shorter course, and obtains its waters from the hill country of Morbhanj and Keunjhar, two of the Tributary States. The three rivers gradually converge towards the coast, and dash down their accumulated waters within 30 miles of each other, upon the Orissa delta During summer their upper channels in the interior table land dwindle to insignificant streams, dotted here and there by stagnant almond shaped pools Including two other minor streams, the Sálandi and Subarnarekhá, they represent the accumulated drainage of 63 350 square miles which during the height of the hot weather, only amounts to a discharge of 1690 cubic feet per second The average cold weather discharge is however 5360 cubic feet per second, but during the rains the rivers rise as shown in the following table, till they bring down an aggregate of 2 760,000 cubic feet per second in time of flood —

THE ORISSA RIVERS.

NAMES OF RIVERS.	Catchment Basin in Square Miles.	Maximum Discharge in time of Flood Cubic Feet per second	Average Cold-Weather Discharge Cubic Feet per Second	Minimum Discharge in May Cubic Feet per Second
Mahánadi,	45 000	1 800 000	3 000	750
Brahmaní	9 000	400 000	1 000	380
Baitaraní,	3 100	200 000	500	180
Sálandi	250	60 000	260	
Subarnarekha	6 000	300 000	600	380
Total	63 350	2 760 000	5 360	1 690

This enormous mass of water falls suddenly upon a narrow level strip of country The river beds are altogether inadequate to carry off the flood Thus, while the Mahánadi alone pours down 1,800 000 cubic feet per second in the height of the rains the whole of its distributaries in the Orissa delta can only discharge 897,449 cubic feet per second It follows therefore, that only one half of the waters thus brought down find an outlet through the deltaic distributaries to the sea. The other half bursts over the banks, and sweeps across the country.

The Mahánadi, as has been shown in the present author's *Orissa*, illustrates in a striking manner the life of a great Indian river. Rising in Central India, 520 miles off, it collects the rainfall of 45,000 square miles, and pours down on the Orissa delta through a narrow gorge just above Cuttack city. In its first stage it runs on a lower level than the surrounding country, winding through mountain passes, and skirting the base of the hills. During this long part of its career it receives innumerable tributaries from the higher country on both banks. So far, it answers to our common English idea of a river. But no sooner does it reach the delta than its whole aspect changes. Instead of running along the lowest ground, it finds itself lifted up on its own deposits of silt, its banks gradually forming ridges, which rise above the adjacent country. Instead of receiving affluents, it shoots forth distributaries. The silt gradually accumulates in the bed and on its margins, until its channel shallows, and its capacity as an outlet for the waters which pour into it from above diminishes. The same process goes on in every one of the hundred distributaries into which the parent stream breaks up: and as the beds grow more shallow, their total discharging power becomes less and less adequate to carry off the water supply to the sea.

As the rivers in the delta thus gradually build themselves up into high-level canals, so the lowest levels lie about half way between each set of their distributaries. The country, in fact, slopes gently downward from the river banks, and in time of flood the overflow is unable to make its way back again into the rivers. The waters stand deep upon the harvest fields long after the main channels have run down. They slowly search out the lines of drainage, accumulating in stagnant swamps, drowning the crops, and poisoning the air with malaria, until they dry up or at last reach the sea. Even in periods of quiescence, the rivers form a complicated network of channels, which crawl eastwards by innumerable bifurcations, interlacings, and temporary rejunctions and divergences.

History.—The Bráhmanical archives of the temple of Jagannáth give us our knowledge of the early history of Orissa. These curious relics consist of bundles of palm leaves, neatly cut, and written over with a sharp iron pen, without ink. They furnish a list of 107 kings, and the exact dates for their reigns, from 3101 B.C. to the present day. During the first three thousand years of which the palm-leaf records treat, or up to 57 B.C., twelve kings are said to have reigned in Orissa, averaging a little more than 250 years a-piece. The first three of them, who are known monarchs of the *Mahábhárata*, divided among them no less than 1294 years. At whatever date the Aryan settlement took place in Orissa, we may conclude that it did not start from Northern India, the seat of these kings, before 1807 B.C. The first king with any

pretensions to being a local monarch—namely, Sankar Deva—has assigned reign of from 1807 to 1407 B.C. It is only in the time of successor, Gautama Deva, however, or between 1407 and 1036 B. that we begin to catch the faintest glimpse of Orissa. During th reign, the Sanskrit colonists are said to have pushed their way down t the Godavari river; but it is not till the reign of the sixth monarch Mahendra Deva, that we hear of the capital city Rajamahendr (Rájámundry), being founded. This brings us down to between 1037 and 822 B.C., and (apart from such unsafe chronology) the foundation of the Aryan sea-coast kingdom of Kalinga may be reasonably placed about that period.

The last five hundred years anterior to the Christian era were those in which Buddhism effected its settlements in Orissa. The Ceylon texts place the advent of the Sacred Tooth in Puri at 543 B.C. About this time, the country was repeatedly invaded by the Yavanas from the north. In the present author's *Orissa* the question has been gone into at length as to the identity of these Yavanas, one of the most interesting enigmas of Indian history. From about 50 B.C. till 319 A.D. the palm leaf writings yield no materials for the history of the Province; but between 319 and 323 A.D., the last great inroad of Yavanas took place, and for 146 years their supremacy was complete. It is certain that, during the period of this long silence on the part of the records, the Buddhists honeycombed the mountains and excavated the rock monasteries of Orissa, an account of which will be found under RAVINUR. In 474 A.D. the Yavanas were finally expelled by Yayati Kesari, the founder of the Kesari or Lion line, which ruled Orissa until 1132 A.D.

The new dynasty was Brahmanical rather than Buddhist from the first. Guided by signs and wonders, the orthodox founder of the Kesari line sought out the image of Jagannath in the jungles where it had lain hidden during the Yavana occupation, and brought it back to Purí in triumph. During this period the great Sivaite temple at BHUVANESWAR was constructed. A warlike prince of the Lion line, who reigned from 941 to 953 A.D., perceived the military strength of he tongue of land where the Mahánadi first divides itself into several ranches, and founded the city of Cuttack, still the capital of Orissa. he Kesari dynasty came to an end in 1132 and was succeeded by hor gangi, a king from the south who by war assisted by diplomacy, tained the sovereignty. The new or so called Gangetic dynasty olutionized the religion of Orissa. As the monarchs of the Province ng the first seven centuries, before the accession of the Kesari line, been Buddhists, and as the Kesari line during the next seven uries had been Siva worshippers, so from the coming in of the etic line in 1132 down to the present day, the reigning house have

been Vishnuites. Anang Bhím Deo, the fifth monarch of the dynasty, who reigned from 1175 to 1202 according to the temple archives, was one of the greatest of the Orissa kings. He made a survey of his whole kingdom, measuring it with reeds; and he also built the present temple of Jagannáth. A description of this edifice, and a brief sketch of the form of religion it represents, will be found in the article on PURI TOWN. The history of the next three centuries, up to the close of the Gangetic dynasty in 1532, is taken up by a narrative of confused fighting, and of expeditions against the rebellious southern portion of the kingdom, which had always given trouble to the Orissa monarchs. On the death of the last king of the line in 1532, his prime minister murdered every male member of his family, and seized the kingdom in 1534 A.D.

The Muhammadans, who had been harassing Orissa, now closed in upon the usurper and his successors. About 1510, Ismáil Ghází, the general of Husáin Sháh, Afghán King of Bengal, had sacked the capital, Cuttack, and plundered the holy city, Purí, itself. But the Orissa prince was yet able to beat back the invaders. The final defeat of the Hindus took place half a century later. In 1567–68, Suláimán, King of Bengal, advanced with a great army under his general, Kálá Pahár, into Orissa, and defeated the last independent King of Orissa under the walls of Jájpur. The Afghán conqueror, on the defeat and death of the Orissa king, was not content, like previous invaders, with levying a ransom from the Province, but marched through it to its southern extremity, and besieged and captured Purí. His second son, Dáúd Khán, who succeeded to the Governorship of Bengal, threw off all allegiance to the Mughal Emperor at Delhi, and declared himself independent. In the struggle that ensued, the Afgháns were worsted and retired into Orissa. Early in 1574, a great battle took place at Mughalmári, near Jaleswar in Balasor, between the Mughals and the Afgháns, in which the latter were completely defeated. In 1578, after a second defeat of the Afgháns, in which Dáúd Khán was slain, Orissa became a Province of Akbar's Empire, and remained so until 1751, when the Maráthás obtained it. The remnants of the Afgháns still used it as a basis for marauding expeditions, one of which, in 1695–98, attained the dignity of a revolt, and temporarily wrested Bengal and Orissa from the Empire.

Orissa, even after the extirpation of the Afgháns, still remained a source of weakness rather than of strength to the Empire. The internal troubles which beset the Mughal Government prevented anything like a settled government in Orissa; the peasantry were left at the mercy of a succession of rude soldiers, who harried the Province and got together as much plunder as their brief tenure of office allowed them. In 1742 the Maráthás came down upon Bengal, and found Orissa an admirable basis for their annual inroads, exactly as the Afgháns had for their

revolts. Nine years later, in 1751, the Governor of Bengal, Ali Vardi Khan, bought them off, by practically ceding to them the Province of Orissa, and agreeing to pay 12 *lákhs* of rupees as *chauth* for Bengal. From that date till 1803 Orissa remained a Maráthá Province.

Wretched as the state of Orissa had been under the Mughals, a half century of deeper misery remained for it under the Maráthás. Their prince had his capital or standing camp at Nagpur in Central India, whence he waged incessant war with his neighbours. His deputies, who were constantly changed and imprisoned on their recall, struggled to wring out of Orissa—the only peaceful Province of his kingdom—a sufficiency to supply the military necessities of their master. Whoever had money was the natural enemy of the State. The Province lay untilled, and any failure of the rice crop produced a famine. Within seven years two terrible scarcities afflicted Orissa. The famine of 1770, a scarcity of much greater intensity than that of 1866, instead of being mitigated by State importations and relief depots was intensified by a mutiny of foreign troops. While the people were dying by thousands on every road side, the Maráthá soldiery threw off the last vestige of control, and for many months ranged like wild beasts over the country. Seven years afterwards in 1777 another great famine ensued; and as the central Maráthá power at Nagpur decayed, each party into which it split separately harried and plundered the Province.

The conquest of Orissa by the English forms part of the great campaign against the Maráthás in Central India undertaken by the Marquis of Wellesley. The original plan was that the force after capturing Cuttack, and leaving a sufficient number of troops to hold it, should make its way by the Barmul Pass through the Tributary States and co-operate with General Sir Arthur Wellesley in Berar. The main body of the expedition started from Ganjam in September 1803, and on the 18th entered Puri without opposition. On the 14th October the fort of Cuttack was taken. Equal success attended the expedition which had been despatched from Bengal against the town of Balasor. The three principal towns of the Province having fallen into our hands, a part of the force was, in pursuance of the original plan of the campaign, despatched under Major Forbes to force the Barmul Pass. This detachment penetrated through the hilly and jungly country which bounds Orissa on the west, and reached the Pass of Barmul, the way to Berar and the Central Provinces. Here the Maráthás made a last stand; but on the 2nd November 1803 the Pass was forced and the enemy, completely broken and defeated, escaped with difficulty across the hills. The Rajás of Bod and Sonpur, in consequence of this defeat, came to render their submission to the British. Meanwhile, Colonel Harcourt was approaching from the east with the intention of effecting a junction with Major Forbes, and leading the combined

force to co-operate with Sir Arthur Wellesley in Berar; but news having come that peace had been concluded both with Sindhia and with the Maráthá Rájá at Nágpur, the troops marched back to Cuttack, and the force was broken up early in 1804.

Colonel Harcourt and Mr. Melvill, as Joint Commissioners, thereupon set about placing the civil administration of Orissa on a satisfactory footing. Courts were established, a Land Settlement arranged for, and the Bengal Civil Regulations extended to the Province. The office of the 'Commissioners for settling the affairs of Cuttack' was abolished in 1805, and Orissa was placed under the charge of a Collector, and of a Judge and Magistrate. The head-quarters of the Province, which then consisted of only one District, were at Purí until 1816, when they were removed to Cuttack. In 1829 this unwieldy jurisdiction was split up into the three Districts of Cuttack, Balasor, and Purí, with the non-Regulation Tributary States. The only instances of armed opposition to British rule which have occurred in Orissa Proper since 1803, were the rebellion of the Khurdhá Rájá in 1804, and the insurrection of the Khurdhá *páiks* in 1817-18. A narrative of these events will be found in the account of Purí District, to which they more properly belong.

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF BRITISH AND TRIBUTARY ORISSA.
(*According to the Census of* 1881.)

Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Houses.	Total Population.	Males.	Females.	Density of Population per Sq. Mile.	Land Revenue (1883-84).
								£
Cuttack, . . .	3,517	12,841	316,436	1,738,165	849,254	888,911	494	88,595
Balasor, . . .	2,066	6,331	160,799	945,280	461,461	483,819	457	40,978
Purí, ...	2,473	5,166	127,369	888,487	446,609	441,878	359	47,369
[1] Angúl, . .	881	379	17,719	101,903	51,819	50,084	115	3,298
Banki, . .	116	177	9,181	56,900	28,448	28,452	490	...
Total of British Orissa,	9,053	24,894	631,504	3,730,735	1,837,591	1,893,144	412	180,240
Tributary States,[2]	15,187	11,212	259,653	1,469,142	742,566	726,576	97	...
Grand Total, .	24,240	36,106	891,157	5,199,877	2,580,157	2,619,720	214	...

[1] Confiscated estates, now administered as British territory.

[2] Details for each of the Tributary States will be found in the population table in the next article, and also in the separate articles on each State in their alphabetical order.

Population —The area of British Orissa, consisting of the thr[ee] regularly settled Districts of Cuttack, Balasor, and Puri, together wit[h] the two escheated estates of Angúl and Banki, amounted in 1881 t[o] 9053 square miles, with a population of 3,730,735, dwelling in 24,89[..] towns and villages, and occupying 631 504 houses. The Tributary States comprise an area of 15,187 square miles, with a total population of 1,469,142, dwelling in 11,212 villages and 259,653 houses. Total of British Orissa and Tributary States—area, 24,240 square miles, population, 5,199,877, towns and villages, 36,106 houses, 891,157

The people live almost entirely by husbandry No tendency towards town life, in the European sense of the word, can be detected in this rural Province Nevertheless, they have cities after their own fashion The principal of these is CUTTACK, with a population (1881) of 42 656, built on the neck of land formed by the first bifurcation of the Mahánadi, at the head of the delta It is the head-quarters of the Provincial Administration, and forms the starting point of the great system of canals which irrigates the Province The next important town, from a commercial point of view, is BALASOR, with a population (1881) of 20,265, the official head quarters of the District of the same name, and the earliest English factory on the seaboard of Bengal PURI, the capital of the third District of Orissa, and the religious metropolis of the Province, has a population (1881) of 22,095 persons. KENDRAPARA, with 15,696 inhabitants, gives its name to the canal which connects Cuttack with tidal waters JAJPUR, with a population of 11,233, is the only other town in the Province with a population exceeding five thousand The following table exhibits all the towns of Orissa of over 5000 inhabitants in 1881, and their chief municipal statistics

MUNICIPAL STATISTICS OF ORISSA, 1883–84

Towns of 5000 Inhabitants and upwards.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Christians and Others.	Total Population	Gross Municipal Income.	Rate of Municipal Taxation per head
					£	s. d.
[C]uttack,	33,073	7 657	1596	42 656	3554	1 4½
[B]alasor,	16 848	3 068	349	20 265	915	0 10½
[Pu]ri,	21 913	181	1	22,095	1927	1 1
[Jaj]pur,	10 611	616	6	11,233	313	0 6½
[Ken]drapara,	14 033	1 658	5	15 69[illegible]	414	0 6½
	96,478	13 210	2257	111,945	7[illegible]	1 0½

Upádhyáya, Misra, Rath, Ota Tiari Dás Pati, and Satpasti. Of these some live on lands granted to them by former Rajás, some by teaching private students, some on presents from rich men and many as domestic priests, spiritual guides, and temple priests. They are numerous, some of them are rich, but many are poor and they rank in social estimation a little lower than the Kulíns. The lowest class of Bráhmans, the Laukik, are supposed to represent the original Aryan Settlements in Orissa and are sub-divided into six families—the Pandá, Senápati, Parhi, Bastiá, Pani, and Sahu. These live as husbandmen cultivating with their own hands, as traders, vegetable dealers, rice merchants, as grain and money lenders and as pilgrim guides. They are numerous, some of them rich but most of them in moderate circumstances, like the better class of husbandmen. They are less esteemed than either of the other two classes of Bráhmans but are generally respected as well born well-to-do men. The total number of Brahmans in British Orissa in 1881 was returned at 94,012.

Next to the Bráhmans comes the Kshattriya or warrior caste. Strictly speaking there is not a single Kshattriya in Orissa although the pedigree is claimed by many. The Kshattriyas are divided into three great classes, with seven sub-divisions. The first is the so-called Kshattriya proper, and includes the three following families—Deva, Lal, and Raya. They consist of Rajas landed proprietors or holders of dependent tenures and some of them lend money and grain on interest. They are few in number, generally rich and highly esteemed. Their numbers are not returned separately in the Census of 1881 and are probably included among the Rajputs who form the second class of Kshattriyas and are sub-divided into the two families of Singh and Chand. These men are held in good estimation and are generally petty landholders, or are employed as military and police officers, door keepers or messengers. The number of Rajputs was returned by the Census of 1881 at 17,971. The Khandaits form the third class who claim the rank of Kshattriya, although they are only recognised as Súdras and indeed are classified as such in the Census Report. They derive their name from the Uriyá *khanda*—a sword and formed the feudal military caste of the ancient Orissa Rajas holding their lands on strictly military tenures. At the present day they form the most numerous caste in Orissa, being returned at 544,422 in 1881. Some of them are landowners, and holders of dependent tenures but the great bulk are now absorbed among the agricultural population, and rank as respectable cultivators.

The Karans form an intermediate caste between the high caste Bráhmans and Rajputs and the undoubted Sudras. They claim to represent the Vaisya or trading caste of ancient India. Many of them are landholders, or lend money and rice on interest, but a large pro-

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Upádhyáya, Misra, Rath, Ota, Tiari, Dás, Pati and Satpasti. Of thes some live on lands granted to them by former Rajás, some by teachin private students, some on presents from rich men, and many a domestic priests, spiritual guides, and temple priests. They are numerous, some of them are rich, but many are poor and they rank in social estimation a little lower than the Kulins. The lowest class of Bráhmans, the Laukik, are supposed to represent the original Aryan Settlements in Orissa, and are sub-divided into six families—the Pandá, Senápati, Parhi, Bastiá, Pani, and Sahu. These live as husbandmen, cultivating with their own hands, as traders, vegetable dealers, rice merchants, as grain and money lenders and as pilgrim guides. They are numerous, some of them rich, but most of them in moderate circumstances, like the better class of husbandmen. They are less esteemed than either of the other two classes of Brahmans, but are generally respected as well-born well-to-do men. The total number of Brahmans in British Orissa in 1881 was returned at 94,012.

Next to the Bráhmans comes the Kshattriya or warrior caste. Strictly speaking, there is not a single Kshattriya in Orissa, although the pedigree is claimed by many. The Kshattriyas are divided into three great classes, with seven sub-divisions. The first is the so-called Kshattriya proper, and includes the three following families—Deva, Lál, and Raya. They consist of Rajas, landed proprietors, or holders of dependent tenures, and some of them lend money and grain on interest. They are few in number, generally rich, and highly esteemed. Their numbers are not returned separately in the Census of 1881, and are probably included among the Rajputs, who form the second class of Kshattriyas, and are sub-divided into the two families of Singh and Chand. These men are held in good estimation, and are generally petty landholders, or are employed as military and police officers, door-keepers, or messengers. The number of Rajputs was returned by the Census of 1881 at 17,971. The Khandaits form the third class who claim the rank of Kshattriya, although they are only recognised as Sudras, and indeed are classified as such in the Census Report. They derive their name from the Uriya *khandá*—a sword, and formed the eudal military caste of the ancient Orissa Rajas, holding their lands on rictly military tenures. At the present day they form the most umerous caste in Orissa, being returned at 544,422 in 1881. Some of em are landowners and holders of dependent tenures, but the great lk are now absorbed among the agricultural population, and rank as pectable cultivators.

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portion are clerks, accountants, and petty officials. They numbered 93,689 in 1881, are generally in good circumstances, and held in esteem. The Kayasths, or the class in Bengal corresponding to the Karans, numbered 9416 in Orissa in 1881.

The following is a list of the principal of the lower or Súdra castes of Hindus in Orissa in 1881, arranged according to numerical superiority, and not according to social rank:—Chásá, the principal cultivating caste, 375,090; Gwálá, pastoral caste of cowherds, milk-sellers, etc., 289,715; Pán, a very low caste of semi-aborigines, one of whose occupations in former times was the procuring of human victims for the Kandh Meriah Sacrifice, 147,362; Telí, oil pressers and sellers, 146,423; Baurí, a low caste of day-labourers, 134,621; Kandára, a low caste of village watchmen, fishermen, and day-labourers, 115,733; Tantí, weavers, 100,345; Keut or Kewat, fishermen, 97,459; Súdra, a distinctive local name for a caste of good cultivators, 83,241; Nápit, 72,224; Dhobí, washermen, 71,999; Baniyá, traders and shopkeepers, 69,131; Kumbhár, potters, 46,386; Barhai, carpenters, 41,682; Kandu, sweetmeat makers, 39,353; Lohár, blacksmiths, 33,585; Chamár, skinners and leather dealers, 24,922; Málí, gardeners, 22,593; Harí, sweepers, 18,750; Madak, sweetmeat makers, 12,380; Dom, mat and basket makers, sometimes employed in fishing, and as executioners, 8860; Jugí, weavers, 8128; Sunrí, spirit sellers and traders, 7595; Tambulí, betel sellers, 6721. The number of caste-rejecting Hindus is returned at 66,362, of whom 60,765 are Vaishnavs.

The Muhammadans, who, as before stated, number 85,611, or 2·24 per cent. of the population, are the descendants of a once dominant race in Orissa. They are generally poor, proud, and discontented. They contain representatives of good Afghán and Pathán families beyond the confines of Northern India; but, as a rule, they are the descendants of the common soldiery and camp-followers of the Afghán garrison of Orissa, and of low-caste Hindu converts. The Muhammadan religion now makes no progress whatever among the people.

The Aboriginal Tribes, both Hindu and non-Hindu, are returned as numbering 130,826, of whom 123,896 are Hindus by religion, while 6930 still profess aboriginal forms of faith. Gonds number 32,100; Santáls, 4646; Bhuiyás, 4003; Bhumijs, 2767; Kharwárs, 1171; Kols, 1062; while the balance is made up of other aboriginal tribes not returned separately in the Census Report.

The Christian community, according to race, consists of—Europeans, 519; Eurasians, 269; natives of India, 3246; other Asiatics, 6; unspecified, 28. Divided according to sect, the Baptists form the great majority, numbering 2965; Roman Catholics number 495; Church of England, 311; Protestants, without specification of sect, 81; Church of Scotland, 37; other sects, 93. The native Christians

principally belong to the different Baptist Missions stationed in the District, and for the most part consist of persons rescued from starvation when children, during the great famine of 1866

THE SHRINE OF JAGANNATH —The following paragraphs, descriptive of the shrine of Jagannáth at Purí, are condensed from the present author's *Orissa* (vol i chapters 3 and 4), to which the reader may be referred for a further and more detailed disquisition on the position occupied by this worship among the religions of India —

For two thousand years Orissa has been the Holy Land of the Hindus. The Province is divided into four great regions of pilgrimage. From the moment the pilgrim passes the Baitarani river, on the high road forty miles north east of Cuttack, he treads on holy ground Behind him lies the secular world, with its cares for the things of this life; before him is the promised land which he has been taught to regard as a place of preparation for heaven On the bank of the river rises shrine after shrine to Siva, the All Destroyer On leaving the stream, he enters Jájpur, literally, the City of Sacrifice, the head-quarters of the region of pilgrimage (Vijayí or Párvati *kshetra*) sacred to Parvatí, the wife of Siva To the south east is the region of pilgrimage sacred to the sun (Hara *kshetra*), now rarely visited, with its matchless ruins looking down in desolate beauty across the Bay of Bengal To the south west is the region of pilgrimage dedicated to Siva (Arka or Padma *kshetra*), with its city of temples, which once clustered, according to native tradition, to the number of seven thousand around the sacred lake Beyond this, nearly due south, is the region of pilgrimage beloved of Vishnu, known to every hamlet throughout India as the abode of Jagannath, the Lord of the World (Vishnu or Purushottama *kshetra*)

As the outlying position of Orissa long saved it from conquest and from that dilapidation of ancient Hindu shrines and rites which marks the Muhammadan line of march through India, so Purí, built upon its extreme south-eastern shore, and protected on the one side by the surf and on the other by swamps and inundations, is the corner of Orissa that has been most left to itself On these inhospitable sands Hindu religion and Hindu superstition have stood at bay for eighteen centuries against the world Here is the national temple, whither the people flock to worship from every Province of India. Here is the Swarga dwara the Gate of Heaven, whither thousands of pilgrims come to die, lulled to their last sleep by the roar of the eternal ocean Twenty generations of devout Hindus have gone through life, haunted with a perpetual yearning to visit these fever stricken sandhills. They are Purí, '*the* City' of their religious aspirations on earth, they are Purushottama, the dwelling of Vishnu, 'the Best of Men,' they are the symbolical Blue Mountain, they are the mystic navel of the

earth. A tract sold to pilgrims at the door of the temple states that 'even Siva is unable to comprehend its glory; how feeble, then, the efforts of mortal men!'

This great yearning after Jagannáth is to some extent the outcome of centuries of companionship in suffering between the people and their god. In every disaster of Orissa, Jagannáth has borne his share. In every flight of the people before an invading power, he has been their companion. The priests, indeed, put the claims of their god upon higher ground. 'In the first boundless space,' they say, 'dwelt the Great God, whom men call Náráyan, or Parameswar, or Jagannáth.' But without venturing beyond this world's history, the first indistinct dawn of Orissa tradition discloses Purí as the refuge of an exiled creed. In the uncertain dawn of Indian tradition, the highly spiritual doctrines of Buddha obtained shelter here; and the Golden Tooth of the founder remained for centuries at Purí, then the Jerusalem of the Buddhists, as it has for centuries been of the Hindus.

Jagannáth makes his first historical appearance in the year 318 A.D., when the priests fled with the sacred image and left an empty city to Rakta Bahu and his buccaneers (*vide Statistical Account of Bengal*, xviii. p. 182). For a century and a half, the image remained buried in the western jungles, till a pious prince drove out the foreigners, and brought back the deity. Three times has it been buried in the Chilká lake; and whether the invaders were pirates from the sea, or the devouring cavalry of Afghánistán, the first thing that the people saved was their god.

The true source of Jagannáth's undying hold upon the Hindu race consists in the fact that he is the god of the people. As long as his towers rise upon the Purí sands, so long will there be in India a perpetual and visible protest of the equality of man before God. His apostles penetrate to every hamlet of Hindustán, preaching the sacrament of the Holy Food (*mahúprasád*). The poor outcast learns that there is a city on the far eastern shore in which high and low eat together. In his own village, if he accidentally touches the clothes of a man of good caste, he has committed a crime, and his outraged superior has to wash away the pollution before he can partake of food or approach his god. In some parts of the country, the lowest castes are not permitted to build within the towns, and their miserable hovels cluster amid heaps of broken potsherds and dunghills on the outskirts. Throughout the southern part of the continent it used to be a law, that no man of these degraded castes might enter the village before nine in the morning or after four in the evening, lest the slanting rays of the sun should cast his shadow across the path of a Bráhman. But in the presence of the Lord of the World, priest and peasant are equal. The rice that has once been placed before the god can never cease to be

pure, or lose its reflected sanctity In the courts of Jagannáth, and outside the Lion Gate, 100,000 pilgrims every year are joined in the sacrament of eating the holy food. The lowest may demand it from, or give it to, the highest. Its sanctity overleaps all barriers, not only o caste, but of race and hostile faiths and a Puri priest will stand the test of receiving the food from a Christian hand

The worship of Jagannáth, too, aims at a catholicism which embraces every form of Indian belief, and every Indian conception of the deity Nothing is too high, and nothing is too low to find admission into his temple. The fetishism and bloody rites of the aboriginal races the mild flower worship of the Vedas and every compromise between the two, along with the lofty spiritualities of the great Indian reformers, have here found refuge The rigid Monotheism of Rámanuja in the twelfth century, the Monastic System of Ramánand in the fifteenth, the mystic Quietism of Chaitanya at the beginning of the sixteenth, and the luxurious Love Worship of the Vallabhácharis towards its close, mingle within the walls of Jagannath at this present day He is Vishnu, under whatever form and by whatever title men call upon his name. Besides thus representing Vishnu in all his manifestations, the priests have superadded the worship of the other members of the Hindu trinity in their various shapes and the disciple of every Hindu sect can find his beloved rites and some form of his chosen deity, within the sacred precincts

The very origin of Jagannáth proclaims him not less the god of the Brahmans than of the low caste aboriginal races The story of the Divine Log is one of the most popular legends of Orissa It is entitled the 'Dáru Bráhma' and, like most of the stories of the people, is an adaptation from the Puranas In this legend we find the aboriginal people worshipping a blue stone in the depths of the forest But the deity has grown tired of the jungle offerings of the primitive people, and longs for the cooked food of the more civilised Aryan race When the Aryan element at length comes on the scene, the rude blue stone disappears, and gives place to a carved image. At the present hour, in every hamlet of Orissa, this twofold worship co-exists. The common people have their shapeless stone or block, which they adore with simple rites in the open air while side by side with it is a temple to one of the Aryan gods, with its carved image and elaborate worship. Some shapeless g, or a black stone or a red stained trunk of a tree, is still the object adoration among the masses. Whenever the villagers are questioned out their religious beliefs, the same answer is invariably given— he common people have no idea of religion but to do right, and to rship the village god'

he worship of Vishnu was not, however, the first form of the Aryan

faith that penetrated these remote jungles of the seaboard. For centuries before and after the birth of Christ, the rock caves of Orissa resounded with the chants of Buddhist monks. But about the fourth century of our era, Buddhism in Orissa began to lose its sharply marked identity, and gradually gave way to other developments of spiritual life, which took the form of Siva-worship. The great city of temples, Bhuvaneswar, dedicated to Siva, dates from the seventh century. This worship incorporated the doctrines of the Aryan conquerors with the rites of the aboriginal races. The doctrines were spiritual, and it kept them in the inner sanctuary for its Aryan priests; the rites were gross and bloody, and it paraded them in the outer courts as an attraction to the mixed populace. It fixed its seat in the west of Purí District, where the mountains and forest tracts of Central India slope down on the alluvial plain. There it struck its roots deep in the ignorance and the fears of a people who knew God only by the more terrible manifestations of His power; as a God mighty indeed, but to be dreaded rather than loved.

But side by side with Siva-worship, there can be dimly traced another spiritual form struggling into life. The worship of Vishnu likewise took its doctrines and all its inner mysteries from the ancient Aryan faith, and engrafted upon them rites which appealed to the imaginations and the passions of a tropical race. Both Sivaism and Vishnuism were attempts to bring the gods down to men. The former plunged boldly into the abyss of superstition, and erected its empire without shame or scruple upon the ignorance and terrors of the people. The worship of Vishnu shrank from such lengths, and tried to create a system wide enough and strong enough for a national religion, by mixing a somewhat less base alloy with the fine gold of Aryan spirituality. It was a religion in all things graceful. Its gods are bright, friendly beings, who walk and converse with men. Its legends breathe an almost Grecian beauty. But pastoral simplicities and an exquisite ritual had no chance against a system like Sivaism, that pandered to the grossest superstitions of the masses. The spiritual element in Vishnu-worship has no doubt always existed among the Aryan settlements throughout India. But its popular conquests have generally been subsequent to those of Sivaism; and this is the case in a very marked manner in Orissa.

In the eleventh century, the Vishnuite doctrines were gathered into a great religious treatise. The Vishnu Purána, which dates from about 1045 A.D., probably represents, as indeed its name implies, 'ancient' forms of belief that had co-existed with Sivaism and Buddhism for centuries. It derives its system from the Vedas; not, however, in a direct channel, but filtered through the two great epic poems of the Rámáyana and the Mahábhárata. It forms one of eighteen religious

treatises, which, under the name of Puránas or Ancient Saying devoted to the mythology and legendary history of the Hindus. works especially extol the members of the Hindu trinity, now clair the pre-eminence for Vishnu, and now for Siva, but in their no flights always rising to a recognition that both are but manifestation the one eternal God.

The Vishnu Purána, compiled barely 800 years ago starts with intolerance equal to that of the ancient code of Manu. It st declares the priests to have sprung from the mouth and the lo castes from the feet, of God. Its stately theogony disdains to touc the legends of the people. Its cosmography confines itself to the Aryan world. It declares, indeed, that there is but one God, but this God is the God of the Bráhmans, to whom He gave the earth for an inheritance, and in whose eyes the ancient races are as demons or wild beasts.

Vishnuism had to preach a far different doctrine before it could become, as it has for ages been the popular religion of Orissa. These withered sticks of mythology could never blossom forth into a national faith. Sivaism had also its ancient sayings, and it outrivalled Vishnu worship by a ritual singularly adapted to terrify and enchain the masses. But about the middle of the twelfth century a great change began to take place. Up to that time, Vishnuism had been the religion of the upper ranks. Jagannáth, although unknown to the Vedas, had ever been the companion of the ruling race in Orissa. We find him sharing the flights of the priests, and appearing in the dreams of kings. But from the twelfth century a curious movement began. Vishnuism in its turn began to throw itself upon the people. Sivaism had enlisted their ignorant terrors, Vishnuism was soon to appeal to the eternal instinct of human liberty and equality. The movement first commenced in Southern India, where Rámánuja about 1150 A.D. preached from city to city the unity of God under the title of Vishnu, the Cause and the Creator of all. The preacher made converts from every class, but it was reserved for his successors formally to enunciate equality of caste before God as an article of the Vishnuite faith.

And meanwhile the great temple of Jagannáth, which now stands at Purí, was built. It was a last magnificent assertion of aristocratic devotion. In 1174 A.D., King Anang Bhím Deo ascended the throne of Orissa. He ruled all the country from the Hugli river on the north to the Godávari on the south, and from the forest country of Sonpur on the west, eastward to the Bay of Bengal, his kingdom comprising an area of over 40,000 square miles. But in the midst of his grandeur he was struck down by a great calamity. He unhappily slew a Bráhman, and the rest of his life became one grand expiation of

As his master had laboured to gather together all castes of the Hinc in one common faith, so Kabír, seeing that the Hindus were in l time no longer the whole inhabitants of India, tried to build up religion that would embrace Hindu and Muhammadan alike. Th voluminous writings of his sect contain the amplest acknowledgmen that the God of the Hindu is also the God of the Musalmán. His universal name is The Inner, whether he may be invoked as the Alí of the Muhammadans or as the Ráma of the Hindus. 'To Alí and Ramá we owe our life, and should show like tenderness to all who live. What avails it to wash your mouth, to count your beads, to bathe in holy streams, to bow in temples, when, whilst you mutter your prayers or journey on pilgrimage, deceitfulness is in your heart? The Hindu fasts every eleventh day, the Musalman on the Ramazán. Who formed the remaining months and days, that you should venerate but one? If the Creator dwell in tabernacles, whose dwelling is the universe? The city of the Hindu God is to the east, the city of the Musalmán God is to the west; but explore your own heart, for there is the God both of the Musalmans and of the Hindus. Behold but One in all things. He to whom the world belongs, He is the father of the worshippers alike of Alí and of Ráma. He is my guide, He is my priest.' The moral code of Kabír is as beautiful as his doctrine. It consists in humanity, in truthfulness, in retirement, and in obedience to the spiritual guide.

The labours of Kabír may be placed between 1380 and 1420 A.D. In 1485 Chaitanya was born. As Rámánand and Kabír were the Vishnuite reformers of Hindustán and Bengal, so Chaitanya was the prophet of Orissa, and for twelve years laboured to extend the worship of Jagannáth. Signs and wonders attended him through life, and during four centuries he has been worshipped as an incarnation of Vishnu. For thirteen months the holy child lay in the womb. An eclipse ended as he entered the world. On the lonely shores of Purí he was visited by beatific sights and revelations. On one occasion he beheld the host of heaven sporting upon the blue waves, and plunged into the ocean in a religious ecstasy, but was miraculously returned to earth in a fisherman's net. After forty-two years of preaching, he sappeared in A.D. 1527.

Extricating ourselves from the halo of legends which surround and scure the apostle, we know little of his private life, except that was the son of a Sylhet Bráhman settled at Nadiyá, near Calcutta; in his youth he married the daughter of a celebrated saint; that wenty-four he forsook the world, and renouncing the status of a eholder, repaired to Orissa, and devoted the rest of his life to the ngation of his faith. But with regard to his doctrines, we have ost ample evidence. No caste and no race was beyond the pal

religion of luxury and systematic indulgence The followers of the first Vishnuite reformers dwelt together in secluded monasteries, or went about scantily clothed, living upon alms. But this sect performs its devotions arrayed in costly apparel, anointed with oil, and perfumed with camphor or sandal wood oil It seeks its converts not among weavers, or leather dressers, or barbers, but among wealthy bankers and merchants, who look upon life as a thing to be enjoyed, and upon pilgrimage as a means of extending their trading enterprises

In Orissa, among the common people, Jagannáth reigns supreme. Different Fiscal Divisions claim, as a precious hereditary right, the privilege of rendering service to the god The jungly highlands on the west of the Chilká supply the timber for the Car Festival The lowlands on the north of the lake annually send thousands of peasants to drag the sacred vehicle The inhabitants delight to explain the etymology of their towns and villages by referring the names to some incident in the history of the god The royal line has for centuries performed menial offices before the image, and as the sweeper caste is the lowest in the Hindu community, so the kings of Orissa have reached the climax of religious humility in their most cherished title of Hereditary Sweeper to Jagannáth

The English Government has scrupulously respected the patrimony of Jagannáth On taking over the country, it was practically decided that all disbursements hitherto made for charitable uses should be continued, on the scale which the orthodox Maráthá Government had established Among these costly bequests, the superintendence of the temple of Jagannath was the chief During the years that preceded their expulsion, the Marathas had paid from £3000 to £5000 a year from their treasury, to make good the deficit between the receipts and the charges of the establishment Lord Wellesley expressly enjoined the British troops, when they marched to occupy the Province in 1803, to respect the temple and the religious prejudices of the Brahmans and pilgrims At the same time, British officers were to make no arrangements that would hamper Government in any subsequent reform of temple abuses The General communicated these orders to the priests *of Jagannáth when he entered the Province, and a deputation of* Brahmans accordingly came into the camp, and placed the temple under his protection without a blow being struck

It is difficult to form anything like an accurate estimate of the present income of Jagannath Accepting the computation of the rent roll of the monasteries connected with the temple at £27,000, and adding £4000 as the present value of the lands granted by the State, we have a total of £31,000 This sum, however, represents but a fraction of his actual income. The offerings of the pilgrims form the

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The Temple.—The sacred enclosure is nearly in the form of a square, protected from profane eyes by a massive stone wall 20 feet high, 652 feet long and 630 feet broad. Within it rise about 120 temples, dedicated to the various forms in which the Hindu mind has imagined its God. In the list are counted no fewer than thirteen temples to Siva, besides several to his queen, the great rivals of Vishnu. The nature worship of primitive times is represented even in this most complex development of modern superstition by a temple to the sun. But the great pagoda is the one dedicated to Jagannath. Its conical tower rises like an elaborately carved sugar-loaf 192 feet high, black with time, and surmounted by the mystic wheel and flag of Vishnu. Outside the principal entrance or Lion Gate in the square where the pilgrims chiefly throng, is an exquisite monolithic Pillar which stood for centuries before the Temple of the Sun twenty miles up the coast.

The temple of Jagannath consists, like all the larger shrines in Orissa, of four chambers opening one into the other. The first is the Hall of Offerings (*Bhog mandir*), where the bulkier oblations are made, only a small quantity of choice food being admitted into the inner shrine. The second is the Pillared Hall (*Nat mandir*) for the musicians and dancing girls. The third is the Hall of Audience (*Jagamohan*), in which the pilgrims assemble to gaze upon the god. The fourth is the Sanctuary itself (*Bara deul*), surmounted by its lofty conical tower. Here sits Jagannath with his brother Balabhadra and his sister Subhadra, in jewelled state. The images are rude logs coarsely fashioned into the form of the human bust from the waist up. On certain festivals the priests fasten golden hands to the short stumps which project from the shoulders of Jagannath.

The service of the temple consists partly in a daily round of obla ons, and partly in sumptuous ceremonials at stated periods through t the year. The offerings are simple enough: fruits and flowers, d the various articles of food in use among a primitive people e, pulse, clarified butter, milk, salt, vegetables, ginger and cocoa s are offered to the images and eaten by the priests. Four times y day the priests clear the sanctuary, and close the tower gates, the god is at his meals. At the door stand Vishnuite ees, waving large fans and singing his praises. In the Pillared a choir of dancing girls enliven the idol's repast by their airy ons, while a few favoured servants attend him in his inner

offerings are bloodless. No animal yields up his life in the of Jagannath. The spilling of blood pollutes the whole and a set of servants are maintained to hurry away the l food that may have been thus contaminated. Yet so deeply

great source of his wealth. No one comes empty-handed. The richer pilgrims heap gold and silver and jewels at the feet of the god, or spread before him charters and title-deeds, conveying rich lands in distant Provinces. Every one, from the richest to the poorest, gives beyond his ability; many cripple their fortunes for the rest of their lives in a frenzy of liberality; and hundreds die on the way home, from not having kept enough to support them on the journey. It may be mentioned that Ranjít Singh bequeathed the celebrated Koh-i-Nur diamond, which now forms one of the Crown jewels of England, to Jagannáth. The total annual value of these offerings can never be known. Some have stated it as high as £70,000. This is perhaps excessive; although it should be remembered that, according to native historians, the Muhammadans managed to extract £100,000 from the pilgrims before they entered the city at all. A moderate computation estimated the offerings to the priests at twice the gross sum which the British officers realized as pilgrim tax; and now that the tax is withdrawn and the pilgrims enter the city so much the richer, the oblations cannot fail much short of three times the amount. This would yield a yearly sum of £37,000, which, added to the £4000 derived from the temple lands, and to the revenues of the religious houses valued at £27,000, makes the total income of Jagannáth not less than £68,000 per annum.

A religious society so ancient and so wealthy naturally gathers around it a vast body of retainers. A quarter of a century ago, there were as many as six thousand male adults as priests, warders of the temple, and pilgrim guides. The number has probably increased since then; and, including the monastic establishments, their servants and hired labourers, along with the vast body of pilgrim guides who roam through every Province of India, it is probable that not less than 20,000 men, women, and children, live, directly or indirectly, by the service of lord Jagannáth.

The immediate attendants on the god are divided into thirty-six orders and ninety-seven classes. At the head is the Rájá of Khurdha, the representative of the ancient royal house of Orissa, who takes upon himself the lowly office of sweeper to Jagannáth. Decorators of the idols, strewers of flowers, priests of the wardrobe, bakers, cooks, guards, musicians, dancing-girls, torch-bearers, grooms, elephant-keepers, and artisans of every sort, follow. There are distinct sets of servants to put the god to bed, to dress him, and to bathe him. A special department keeps up the temple records, and affords a literary asylum to a few learned men. The baser features of a worship which aims at a sensuous realization of God, by endowing Him with human passions, appear in a band of prostitutes who sing before the image.

The Temple.—The sacred enclosure [illegible] protected from profane eyes by a massive stone wall [illegible] 652 feet long, and 630 feet broad. [illegible] dedicated to the [illegible] God. In the [illegible] besides several to his queen [illegible] nature-worship of primitive times [illegible] complex development of modern [illegible] But the great pagoda is the [illegible] conical tower rises like an elaborately [illegible] black with time, and surmounted by [illegible] Vishnu. Outside the principal entrance [illegible] where the pilgrims clutch through [illegible] which stood for centuries before the [illegible] up the coast.

The temple of Jagannath consists, like all the larger shrines in Orissa, of four chambers opening one into the other. The first is the Hall of Offerings (*Bhog-mandap*), where the bulkier of its [illegible] made, only a small quantity of the cooked food being admitted into the inner shrine. The second is the Pillared Hall (*Nat-mandir*) for the musicians and dancing girls. The third is the Hall of Audience (*Jagamohan*), in which the pilgrims assemble to gaze upon the god. The fourth is the Sanctuary itself (*Bara deul*), surmounted by its lofty conical tower. Here sits Jagannath with his brother Balabhadra and his sister Subhadra, in jewelled state. The images are rude logs coarsely fashioned into the form of the human bust from the waist up. On certain festivals the priests fasten golden hands to the short stumps which project from the shoulders of Jagannath.

The service of the temple consists partly in a daily round of oblations, and partly in sumptuous ceremonials at stated periods throughout the year. The offerings are simple enough: fruits and flowers, and the various articles of food in use among a primitive people—rice, pulse, clarified butter, milk, salt, vegetables, ginger and cocoanuts are offered to the images and eaten by the priests. Four times every day the priests clear the sanctuary, and close the tower gates, while the god is at his meals. At the door stand Vishnuite votaries, waving large fans and singing his praises. In the Pillared Hall, a choir of dancing girls enliven the idol's repast by their airy motions, while a few favoured servants attend him in his inner shrine.

The offerings are bloodless. No animal yields up his life in the service of Jagannath. The spilling of blood pollutes the whole place, and a set of servants are maintained to hurry away the cooked food that may have been thus contaminated. Yet so deeply

rooted is the spirit of compromise in this great national temple, that the sacred enclosure also contains a shrine to Bimalá, the 'stainless' queen of the All-Destroyer, who is every year adored with midnight rites and bloody sacrifices.

Festivals.—Twenty-four high festivals enliven the religious year. They consist chiefly of Vishnuite celebrations, but freely admit the ceremonials of the rival sects. A vein of the old aboriginal rites runs through them all. At the Red-Powder Festival (*Chandan-játrá*), which occurs in the month of Baisákh, and lasts for three weeks, a boat procession of the gods passes along the sacred lake. Vishnu and Siva enjoy equal honours in the ceremony. The wild age is yearly commemorated in the abduction of the fair nymph by the enamoured god, a primitive form of marriage *per raptionem*, acknowledged by ancient Hindu law. The Aryan advance through India is celebrated on Ráma's birthday, on which the god appears in the dress and arms of the Sanskrit hero who marched through the southern jungles of the peninsula, and slew the cannibal king of Ceylon. At the Bathing Festival (*Snán-játrá*), when the images are brought down in great pomp to one of the artificial lakes, a proboscis is fastened to their noses, so as to give them the look of the elephant god of the aboriginal tribes (Ganesh). The supremacy of Vishnu is declared, however, in the festival of the slaughter of the deadly Cobra-da-Capello (*Káli-damana*), the familiar of Siva and his queen. The indecent rites that have crept into Vishnuism, and which, according to the spirit of the worshipper, are either high religious mysteries or simple obscenities, are represented by the Birth Festival (*Janam*), in which a priest takes the part of the father, and a dancing-girl that of the mother, of Jagannáth, and the ceremony of his nativity is performed to the life.

The Car Festival (*Rath-játrá*) is the great event of the year. It takes place, according as the Hindu month falls, in June or July, and for weeks beforehand pilgrims come trooping into Purí by thousands every day. The whole District is in a ferment. The great car is 45 feet in height. This vast structure is supported on sixteen wheels of 7 feet diameter, and is 35 feet square. The brother and sister of Jagannáth have separate cars a few feet smaller. When the sacred images are at length brought forth and placed upon their chariots, thousands fall on their knees and bow their foreheads in the dust. The vast multitude shouts with one throat, and, surging backwards and forwards, drags the wheeled edifices down the broad street towards the country-house of lord Jagannáth. Music strikes up before and behind, drums beat, cymbals clash, the priests harangue from the cars, or shout a sort of fescennine medley enlivened with broad allusions and coarse gestures, which are received with roars of laughter by the crowd. And so the dense mass struggles forward by convulsive jerks, tugging and

sweating, shouting and jumping, singing, and praying, and swearing. The distance from the temple to the country house is less than a mile, but the wheels sink deep into the sand and the journey takes several days. After hours of severe toil and wild excitement in the July tropical sun, a reaction necessarily follows. The zeal of the pilgrims flags before the garden house is reached, and the cars deserted by the devotees, are dragged along by the professional pullers with deep-drawn grunts and groans. These men, 4200 in number, are peasants from the neighbouring Fiscal Divisions, who generally manage to live at free quarters in Puri during the festival.

Once arrived at the country house the enthusiasm subsides. The pilgrims drop exhausted upon the burning sand of the sacred street, or block up the lanes with their prostrate bodies. When they have slept off their excitement, they rise refreshed and ready for another of the strong religious stimulants of the season. Lord Jagannath is left to get back to his temple as best he can, and in the quaint words of a writer half a century ago the god 'would infallibly stick' at his country house but for the professional car pullers.

In a closely packed, eager throng of a hundred thousand men and women, many of them unaccustomed to exposure or hard labour, and all of them tugging and straining to the utmost under the blazing tropical sun, deaths must occasionally occur. There have doubtless been instances of pilgrims throwing themselves under the wheels in a frenzy of religious excitement but such instances have always been rare and are now unknown. At one time several unhappy people were killed or injured every year but they were almost invariably cases of accidental trampling. The few suicides that did occur were for the most part cases of diseased and miserable objects who took this means to put themselves out of pain. The official returns now place is beyond doubt. Nothing indeed could be more opposed to the irit of Vishnu worship than self immolation. Accidental death within temple renders the whole place unclean. The ritual suddenly stops, d the polluted offerings are hurried away from the sight of the nded god. According to Chaitanya the apostle of Jagannath the ruction of the least of God's creatures is a sin against the Creator. mmolation he would have regarded with horror. The copious cus literature of his sect frequently describes the Car Festival, nkes no mention of self sacrifice nor does it contain any passage ould be twisted into a sanction for it. Abul Fazl the keen man observer is equally silent although from the context it is certain that had he heard of the practice, he would have ned it.

ould be well for Jagannath if these old calumnies were the rges which his priests had to answer. Lascivious s...

disfigure his walls, indecent ceremonies disgrace his ritual, and dancing-girls put the modest female worshippers to the blush by their demeanour. But these are not the sole corruptions of the faith. The temple of Jagannáth, that *colluvio religionum*, in which every creed obtained an asylum, and in which every class and sect can find its god, now closes its gates against the low-caste population. It were vain to attempt to trace the history of this gross violation of the spirit of the reformed Vishnuite faith. Even at the present moment no hard-and-fast line exists between the admitted and the excluded castes; and the priests are said to be much less strict to mark the disqualification of caste in pilgrims from a distance, than among the non-paying local populace.

Speaking generally, only those castes are shut out who retain the flesh-eating and animal-life-destroying propensities and professions of the aboriginal tribes. A man must be a very pronounced non-Aryan to be excluded. Certain of the low castes, such as the washermen and potters, may enter half-way, and, standing humbly in the court outside the great temple, catch a glimpse of the jewelled god within. But unquestionable non-Aryans, like the neighbouring hill tribes or forest races, and the landless servile castes of the low-lands, cannot go in at all. The same ban extends to those engaged in occupations either offensive in themselves, or repugnant to Aryan ideas of purity, such as wine-sellers, sweepers, skinners, corpse-bearers, hunters, fishers, and bird-killers. Criminals who have been in jail, and women of bad character, except the privileged temple girls, are also excluded—with this difference, however, that a criminal may expiate the defilement of imprisonment by penance and costly purifications; but a woman once fallen can never more pass the temple gates.

The name of Jagannáth still draws the faithful from the most distant Provinces of India to the Purí sands. Day and night throughout every month of the year, troops of devotees arrive at Purí; and for 300 miles along the great Orissa road, every village has its pilgrim encampment. The parties consist of from 20 to 300 persons. At the time of the great festivals, these bands follow so close as to touch each other; and a continuous train of pilgrims, many miles long, may often be seen on the Purí high-road. They march in orderly procession, each party under its spiritual leader. At least five-sixths, and often nine-tenths, of them are females. Now a straggling band of slender, diminutive women, clothed in white muslin, and limping sadly along, shows a pilgrim company from Lower Bengal; then a joyous retinue with flowing garments of bright red or blue, trudging stoutly forward, their noses pierced with elaborate rings, their faces freely tattooed, and their hands encumbered with bundles of very dirty cloth, proclaims the stalwart female peasantry of Northern Hindustán. Ninety-five out

of a hundred are on foot. Mixed with the throng are devotees of various sorts,—some covered with ashes, some almost naked, some with matted, yellow stained hair, and almost all with their foreheads streaked with red or white, a string of beads round their necks, and a stout staff in their hands. Every now and then covered waggons drawn by the high humped bullocks of Upper India, or by the smaller breed of Bengal, according to the nationality of the owner, creak past on their wooden wheels. Those from the Northern Provinces still bear traces of the licentious Musalmán rule by being jealously shut up. The Bengali husband, on the other hand, keeps his women good tempered, and renders pilgrimage pleasant by piercing holes in the waggon hood, through which dark female eyes constantly peep out. Then a lady in coloured trousers, from some village near Delhi, ambles past on a tiny pony, her husband submissively walking by her side, and a female domestic, with a hamper of Ganges water and a bundle of dirty cloth, bringing up the rear. Next a great train of palanquins, carrying a Calcutta banker and his ladies, sweeps past. But the greatest spectacle is a north-country Raja, with his caravan of elephants, camels, led horses, and swordsmen looking resigned and very helpless in his sedan of state, followed by all the indescribable confusion, dirt, and noises of Indian royalty.

The great spiritual army that thus marches its hundreds, and sometimes its thousands, of miles along burning roads, across unbridged rivers, and through pestilent regions of jungle and swamp is annually recruited with as much tact and regularity as is bestowed on any military force. Attached to the temple is a body of emissaries called pilgrim guides, numbering about three thousand men, who visit every Province and District of India in search of devotees. Each of the leading priests keeps up a separate set of these men, sending them to he part of the country of which he enjoys the spiritual charge and laiming the profits of the disciples they bring in. They wander about om village to village within their allotted beats, preaching pilgrimage the liberation from sin. The arrival of a pilgrim guide is a memor le event in the still life of an Indian village. He seldom shines in blic exhortation but waits till the men have gone out to the fields, l then makes a round of visits to the women. Skilled in every artifice persuasion he works upon the religious fears and the worldly hopes e female mind, and by the time the unsuspecting husbands come from their work, every house has its fair apostle of pilgrimage elder women and some of the aged fathers of the hamlet, long to e face of the merciful god who will remit the sins of a life, and ntent to lay their bones within his precincts. Religious motives ss emphatic sort influence the majority. The hopes of worldly for a good deed swell the number. The fashionableness of

pilgrimage attracts the frivolous. The young are hooked by the novelty of a journey through strange countries. Poor widows catch at anything to relieve the tedium of their blighted existence; and barren wives long to pick up the child-giving berries of the banyan tree within the sacred enclosure, and to pour out the petition of their souls before the kindly god. In parties of thirty pilgrims, more than five men are seldom met with, and sometimes not more than three. The proportion may be taken at ten per cent.

The first part of the journey is pleasant enough. Change of scene, new countries, races, and languages, and a world of strange customs and sights, await the travellers from Upper India. A good part of the distance is now accomplished by railway, and the northern pilgrims can thus get over their first thousand or even fourteen hundred miles, if they choose to travel straight through, in three days. But they generally walk from three to six hundred miles, although within the last two or three years a steamboat service between Calcutta and Orissa has attracted large numbers of pilgrims, which is steadily increasing. Those who keep to the road have spent their strength long before the holy city is reached. The sturdy women of Hindustán brave it out, and sing songs till they drop; but the weaker females of Bengal limp piteously along with bleeding feet in silence, broken only by deep sighs and an occasional sob. The pilgrim-guide tries to keep up their spirits, and insists, with a necessary obduracy, on their doing a full day's journey every day, in order that they may reach in time for the festival. Many a sickly girl dies upon the road; and by the time they reach Purí, the whole party have their feet bound up in rags, plastered with dirt and blood.

But, once within sight of the holy city, the pains and miseries of the journey are forgotten. They hurry across the ancient Maráthá bridge with songs and ejaculations, and rushing towards one of the great artificial lakes, plunge beneath its sacred waters in a transport of religious emotion. The dirty bundles of rags now yield their inner treasures of spotless cotton, and the pilgrims, refreshed and robed in clean garments, proceed to the temple. The pilgrim-guide makes over the flock to his priestly employer, and every hour discloses some new idol or solemn spectacle. As they pass the Lion Gate, a man of the sweeper caste strikes them with his broom to purify them of their sins, and forces them to promise, on pain of losing all the benefits of pilgrimage, not to disclose the events of the journey or the secrets of the shrine.

In a few days the excitement subsides. At first nothing can exceed their liberality to their spiritual guide. But thoughts of the slender provision remaining for the return journey soon begin to cool their munificence, and the ghostly man's attentions slacken in proportion.

Before a week is over, money altercations commence, which in process of time resolve themselves into an acrimonious haggling over every shrine, and the last few days of their stay are generally devoted to schemes for getting out of the holy city with as few more payments as possible.

Every day the pilgrims bathe in one of the sacred lakes. These vast rtificial sheets of water are embanked with solid masonry honeycombed y time, and adorned with temples rising from the edge or peeping om beneath masses of rich foliage. At the principal one, 5000 thers may be seen at once. On the masonry banks, which are med into one continuous flight of steps all the way round a good mile ength, there is sometimes not an inch of standing room to be had. Here, as in every spot where the common people congregate, the primitive adoration of local divinities and village gods makes its appear ance. In this centre of Vishnu worship, half way down the grand flight of steps to the lake, stands a venerable banyan tree, the abode of an ancient sylvan deity, whom the pilgrims propitiate by sticking red flowers into the crevices of the weather beaten trunk.

Not far off is the garden house of Jagannath, whither the three sacred images are drawn during the Car Festival. It stands at the end of a long, broad, sandy avenue somewhat under a mile in length, which runs direct from it to the temple. It is surrounded by a massive wall about twenty feet high, castellated at the top. The principal gateway looks towards the temple, and is a handsome structure with a fine pointed roof adorned with lions in the most conventional style of Hindu sculpture. Inside one catches glimpses of long straight walks and groves of bright evergreen trees, with an ancient shrine at the end of the vista.

Another place visited by all pilgrims is the *Swarga dwara*, the Gate of Heaven. The devotee threads his way through the deep-sunk arrow alleys of the town, with their thatched huts of wattle and mud aily painted with red and yellow gods, till he reaches the shore here, on the south of the city, he comes on a region of sandhills, ordered by temples and tombs behind, and with the surf-beaten beach front. No distinct boundaries mark the limits of the Gate of Heaven uns about a quarter of a mile along the coast, or as much as may occupied by a thousand cows. In the background the lofty tower agannath rises from the heart of the city, and in the intervening e little monasteries cluster each in its own hollow between the hills. Sometimes an outlying rood or two of land is reclaimed, nfinite labour, from the sandy slopes, and fenced in by a curious ade of the red earth pots in which the holy food is served out to grims. The sacred rice can only be placed in a new vessel, and vening thousands of the unbroken pots are at the disposal of in want of such slender building materials.

Here the pilgrims bathe. At the great festival, as many as 40,000 rush together into the surf; and every evening, silent groups may be seen purifying themselves for their devotions under the slanting rays of the sun. It is a spot sanctified by the funeral rites of generations. The low castes who bury their dead, dig a hasty hole in the sand; and the hillocks are covered with bones and skulls, which have been washed bare by the tropical rains, or dug up by the jackals. Every evening, funeral pyres are lighted here for the incremation of the bodies of the more respectable Hindus who have died in the town.

No trustworthy statistics exist as to the number of pilgrims who visit Jagannáth. But a native gentleman, who has spent his life on the spot, has published as his opinion that the number that daily flocks in and out of the holy city never falls short of 50,000 a year, and sometimes amounts to 300,000. Not a day passes without long trains of footsore travellers arriving at the shrine. At the Car Festival, food is cooked in the temple kitchen for 90,000 devotees; at another festival for 70,000; and on the morning of one of their solemn full moons, 40,000 pilgrims wash away their sins in the surf. The old registers, during the period when the pilgrim tax was levied, notoriously fell below the truth; yet in five out of the ten years between 1820 and 1829, the official return amounted to between one and two hundred thousand. The pilgrims from the south are a mere handful compared with those who come from Bengal and Northern India, yet it has been ascertained that 65,000 find their way to Purí, across the Chilká lake, in two months alone. Along the great north road the stream flows day and night. As many as 20,000 arrive at a favourite halting-place between sunrise and sunset. As many as 9613 were actually counted by the police leaving Purí on a single day, and 19,209 during the last six days in June. This is the number absolutely ascertained to have departed; and probably many more slipped off unperceived. The records of the missionaries in Orissa estimate the number of the pilgrims present at the Car Festival alone, in some years, as high as 145,000.

Disease and death make havoc of the pilgrims. During their stay in Purí they are badly lodged and miserably fed. The priests impress on them the impropriety of dressing food within the holy city; and the temple kitchen thus secures the monopoly of cooking for the multitude. The eatables served out chiefly consist of boiled rice. Peas, pulse, clarified butter, sugar, and rice are also made into a variety of confections. The charges seem to be reasonable enough; a mess of rice sufficient for two men costing three-halfpence, except during the festivals, when the vast number of customers enables the cooks to raise their prices. Before being offered for sale, it is presented to Jagannáth in the outer hall, but within sight of the image, and thus becomes holy food. When fresh, it is not unwholesome, although pilgrims complain

of the cooking being often very bad But, unfortunately, only a p
of it is eaten fresh, as it is too sacred for the least fragment to be thro
away. Large quantities of it are sold in a state dangerous even to man in robust health, and deadly to the wayworn pilgrims, half of who reach Purí with some form or other of bowel complaint. 'Whe examined after twenty four hours even in January' writes Dr Mouat late Inspector General of Jails 'putrefactive fermentation had begun in all the rice compounds, and after forty-eight hours, the whole was a loathsome mass of putrid matter, utterly unfit for human use This food forms the chief subsistence of the pilgrims and the sole subsistence of the beggars who flock in hundreds to the shrines during the festival It is consumed by some one or other, whatever its state of putrefaction, to the very last morsel'

But bad food is only one of many predisposing causes to disease which the pilgrims have to encounter The low level of Purí and the sandy ridges which check the natural drainage towards the sea render it a very dirty city Each house is built on a little mud platform about four feet high In the centre of the platform is a drain which receives the filth of the household, and discharges it in the form of black, stinking ooze on the street outside The platform itself becomes gradually soaked with the pestiferous slime In many houses, indeed, a deep open cesspool is sunk in the earthen platform and the wretched inmates eat and sleep around this perennial fountain of death As a rule, the houses consist simply of two or three cells leading one into the other, without windows or roof ventilation of any sort In these lairs of disease the pilgrims are massed together in a manner shocking to humanity The city contains upwards of 6000 houses, with a resident population in 1881 of 21 913 souls. But almost every citizen takes in pilgrims, and in 1869 there were not fewer than 5000 lodging houses in the city The scenes that formerly took place in these putrid dens baffle description 'I was shown one apartment says Dr Mouat in the Report above cited, 'in the best pilgrim hotel of the place, in which eighty persons were said to have passed the night It was 13 feet long, 10 feet 5 inches broad, with side walls 6½ feet in height, and a low pent roof over it. It had but one entrance, and no escape for the effete air It was dark dirty and dismal when empty and must have been a pest house during the festival In this house occurred the first case of holera in the last outbreak. If this be the normal state of the best dging house in the broad main street of Puri, it is not difficult to agine the condition of the worst in the narrow, confined, undrained k slums of the town About the time of the Car Festival, there be little doubt that as many as 90 000 people were often packed weeks together in the 5000 lodging houses of Purí.
t certain seasons of the year this misery is mitigated by sleeping

out of doors. In the dry weather, the streets of Purí look like a great encampment, without the tents. The soaking dews are unwholesome enough; but as long as the people can spend the night outside, some check exists to the overcrowding of pilgrims by rapacious lodging-house keepers. How slight this check practically proves, may be judged of from the fact that the official reports before cited are specially selected as referring to the season when people can sleep out of doors with impunity. But the Car Festival, the great ceremony of the year, unfortunately falls at the beginning of the rains. The water pours down for hours in almost solid sheets. Every lane and alley becomes a torrent or a stinking canal, which holds in suspension the accumulated filth heaps of the hot weather. The wretched pilgrims are now penned into the lodging-house cells without mercy. Cholera invariably breaks out. The living and the dying are huddled together, with a leaky roof above, and a miry clay floor under foot, 'the space allotted per head being just as much as they can cover lying down.'

But it is on the return journey that the misery of the pilgrims reaches its climax. The rapacity of the Purí priests and lodging-house keepers has passed into a proverb. A week or ten days finishes the process of plundering, and the stripped and half-starved pilgrims crawl out of the city with their faces towards home. They stagger along under their burdens of holy food, which is wrapped up in dirty cloth, or packed away in heavy baskets and red earthen pots. The men from the Upper Provinces further encumber themselves with a palm-leaf umbrella, and a bundle of canes dyed red, beneath whose strokes they did penance at the Lion Gate. After the Car Festival, they find every stream flooded. Hundreds of them have not money enough left to pay for being ferried over the network of rivers in the delta. Even those who can pay have often to sit for days in the rain on the bank, before a boat will venture to launch on the ungovernable torrent. At a single river, an English traveller once counted as many as forty corpses, over which the kites and dogs were battling.

The famished, drenched throng toils painfully backward, urged by the knowledge that their slender stock of money will only last a very few weeks, and that, after it is done, nothing remains but to die. The missionaries along the line of march have ascertained that sometimes they travel forty miles a day, dragging their weary limbs along till they drop from sheer fatigue. Hundreds die upon the roadside. Those are most happy whom insensibility overtakes in some English Station. The servants of the municipality pick them up and carry them to the hospital. The wretched pilgrims crowd into the villages and halting-places along the road, blocking up the streets, and creating an artificial famine. The available sleeping places are soon crammed

to overflowing, and every night thousands have no shelter from the pouring rain Miserable groups huddle under trees. Long lines, with their heads on their bundles, lie among the carts and bullocks on the side of the road.

It is impossible to compute, with anything like precision, the number that thus perish on the homeward journey Personal inquiries among the poorer pilgrims lead to the conclusion that the deaths in the city and by the way seldom fall below one-eighth, and often amount to one fifth, of each company, and the Sanitary Commissioner for Bengal confirms this estimate Among the richer devotees, who travel in bullock carts or by palanquin the losses, so far as can be ascertained, do not exceed the ordinary contingencies of a long journey performed in the most trying season of the Indian year But, on the other hand, outbreaks of cholera take place, which although now controlled to some extent by science, spare neither rich nor poor Indeed, few pilgrims from the distant Provinces of Upper India attend the great Car Festival in mid summer, except the very fanatical, who first make their arrangements for dying on the road While the population of Lower Bengal flocks to this ceremonial, the northern devotees content themselves with a cold weather pilgrimage to the Swinging Festival in March, and even then, the deadly hot season catches them before they regain their native villages It is impossible to reckon the total number of the poorer sort who travel on foot at less than 84,000 It is equally impossible to reckon their deaths in Purí and on the road at less than one seventh or 12,000 a year Deducting 2000 from these for the ordinary death rate, we have a net slaughter of 10,000 per annum

It may well be supposed that the British Government has not looked unmoved on this appalling spectacle. Nothing but a total prohibition of pilgrimage would put a stop to the annual massacre But such a prohibition would amount to an interdict on one of the most cherished religious privileges, and would be regarded by every Hindu throughout India as a great national wrong

The subject has come up from time to time for official discussion, and, in 1867, a grand effort was made to enlist the educated classes against so homicidal a practice Circular letters were sent to every Division of Bengal, and the utmost influence of the higher officials was brought to bear But the answers which came in from every part of Bengal admitted of no hope All that remained was to institute a system of sanitary surveillance and quarantine, which should reduce the inevitable loss of life to a minimum

Such measures are of three kinds,—the first being directed to lessen the number of pilgrims, the second, to mitigate the dangers of the road, and the third, to prevent epidemics in Purí. Anything like a

general prohibition of pilgrimage would be an outrage upon the religious feelings of the people. But, in seasons of cholera or of other great calamity in Orissa, it might be possible to check the pilgrim stream, by giving warning in the Government *Gazette*, and through the medium of the vernacular papers. Thousands of devotees would put off the enterprise to another year. It is very difficult, however, to give such warnings before the month in which the pilgrims usually start. But in extreme cases they could be stopped upon the road, and turned back before they entered Orissa. This was done in the famine year 1866, and native public opinion supported the action of Government. But it cannot be too distinctly understood, that such an interference is only justifiable under extreme and exceptional circumstances.

The second set of preventive measures can be applied with greater safety, and with more certain results. Thousands of pilgrims every year die upon the journey from exhaustion and want of food. Nor does there seem any possibility of lessening the number of deaths from these causes. But, until very recently, some thousands also died of diseases which, if taken in time, are under the control of medical science. Within the last few years, pilgrim hospitals have been established along the main lines of road, and a medical patrol has been, through the energy and devotion of the Civil Surgeon of Purí, established in the vicinity of the holy city. Great good has been effected by these means; but a heavy drawback to their utility consists in the fact that the devotees will not enter an hospital except at the last extremity, and the surgeons say that the great majority of pilgrim patients are beyond the reach of aid when they are brought in.

There exists, however, another means of decreasing the danger of the road besides medical patrols and pilgrim hospitals. The large towns along the route always contain the seeds of cholera; and, indeed, that disease is seldom wholly absent from any Indian city. The arrival of the pilgrim stream is, year after year, the signal for the ordinary sporadic cases to assume the dimensions of an epidemic. Cuttack, the capital of Orissa, suffered so regularly and so severely from the passage of the pilgrim army, that the doctors, having tried everything else, at last determined to shut the devotees entirely out of the city. The result upon the public health has been marvellous. Police are stationed at the entrance to the town, and warn the pilgrims that they must skirt round the municipal boundaries. A sanitary cordon is thus maintained, and Cuttack is now free from the annual calamity to which it was for centuries subject.

Agriculture.—Rice is the great crop of Orissa. The husbandmen have developed every variety of it, from the low-growing plant 18 inches high, to the long-stemmed paddy which rears its head above 6 or 7 feet of water. Their skill in tillage has adapted this cereal to all

classes of soil, from the dry uplands to the deep swamps. One variety is sown on low lands in December or January, and is reaped in March or April, another is sown on high lands in May or June, and reaped in July or August, a third sown at the same time, is reaped in September, a fourth, sown on lands of middling elevation, is reaped in October, a fifth, sown on low lands throughout the whole Province at the beginning of the rains yields the great harvest of the year in December Rice is the bountiful gift of nature to a deltaic population, and is associated in the most intimate manner with the domestic ceremonies of their lives and with their worship of the gods They distinguish each stage of its growth and of its preparation as an article of food. Besides rice, they have wheat, many varieties of pulse and pease, oil seeds—especially mustard—hemp tobacco cotton, sugar cane, the costly betel leaf, tubers, and vegetables of many kinds

The rates of rent vary according to the quality of the soil From 6s. to 10s. an acre may be taken as the rent of first class winter rice land, or of the best two crop land Medium soils pay a rent of from 2s 6d to 5s and inferior lands from 9d an acre upwards. Expensive and specially exhausting crops, such as tobacco and sugar cane, pay as high as 25s an acre, but their average rent is from 12s. to 18s. In 1883-84 common rice sold at 42 lbs. for the rupee (2s), and wheat at from 22 lbs to 28 lbs. the rupee gram (a pulse), from 32 lbs to 36 lbs. salt from 24 lbs to 32 lbs. In Puri District, 10 acres are considered a fair sized farm and 30 acres a large holding In Cuttack District, it is estimated that small holdings of less than 10 acres absorb one half of the total cultivated area. Very few farms exceed 25 acres In the District of Balasor with its 656 000 acres of cultivable land there are not more than one hundred holdings of from 20 to 100 acres, and the few farms that exist of these dimensions are generally held by families of brethren who cultivate the land in common Sixty per cent of the whole farms are below 10 acres and these are frequently held by several cultivators in common The zamindárs make advances of money and seed to the tenants.

Land Revenue—The total land revenue collected in British Orissa in 1883-84 was £176 942, of which £18 641 represented arrears. The number of estates from which the collection was made was 5839 number of permanently settled estates was 174 (£14 680) of temporarily settled estates, 5634 (£136 945) and of [illegible] s, 31 (£25 317) During 1883-84 the revenue courts disposed 929 suits to recover arrears of rent. The total amount of road public works cesses collected in 1883-84 was £22,483 The area irrigation was 48 359 acres (of which 45 981 acres were situated ttack), land revenue demand on irrigated area, £19,381, or 8s

Trade.—The ports of Orissa are Balasor, False Point (Cuttack), Purí, and Chandbáli, together with several minor coasting ports. Rice and cotton piece-goods are the staples of Orissa trade.

The total value of the sea-borne trade of Orissa, in 1883–84, import and export, was £1,608,282, namely, imports, £749,510, and exports, £858,772. Almost the whole of the import trade, and nearly 60 per cent. of the export trade, is with Calcutta, about 12 per cent. of the whole trade being with other Indian ports, and about 20 per cent. of the export trade being with foreign ports not Indian. The chief articles of imports are European cotton twist and yarn (£148,059), Indian do. (£23,278), European cotton piece-goods (£101,900), Indian do. (£894), apparel (£49,163), gunny-bags (£49,724), metals (£81,305), oils (£17,837), spices (£18,861), areca-nuts (£29,960), tobacco (£20,691), and treasure (£91,103). The chief exports of Orissa are rice (£551,752), hides (£67,561), timber for railway sleepers (£9982), and lac (£11,556). Balasor is the leading District for rice exportation; number of tons exported from Balasor District (1883–84), 54,530; from Cuttack, 41,597; from Purí, 12,713. The rice of Balasor finds its largest market in Mauritius, and the rice of Cuttack in Ceylon. The exports of Purí also mostly find their way to Ceylon.

In 1883–84, the number of steam vessels that entered Balasor with cargo was 210, and of sailing vessels, 73: cleared with cargo—steam vessels, 219; sailing vessels, 113: number of steam vessels entering Cuttack with cargo, 103; and of sailing vessels, 7: cleared with cargo—steam vessels, 99; sailing vessels, 35: number of steam vessels entering Purí with cargo, 21; and of sailing vessels, 1: cleared with cargo—steam vessels, 32; sailing vessels, 2. Total vessels trading with Orissa ports in 1883–84—steam, 684; sailing, 231. Two steamers run weekly between Calcutta and Balasor, and four bi-weekly steamers connect Calcutta with Cuttack *viâ* Chandbálí.

The traffic on the Orissa canals, down-stream, was valued at £374,652 in 1883–84; and up-stream, at £294,386: total, £669,038. The number of laden boats on the canals was 7965.

If Orissa has any mineral resources, they are as yet unworked. The only industry of the least importance is salt, which is manufactured mostly in Purí District, but generally throughout Orissa. Even the salt industry is not flourishing, and it is thought that Liverpool salt will eventually drive the native article from the market. Cuttack has some reputation for its gold and filigree work. Tea is not grown in Orissa, and the same may be said of indigo and cinchona.

Communications.—Orissa has no railroads, and the general system of road communication is miserably deficient. The Province is thus exposed to the earliest and worst effects of famine. Only one

main road (namely, the Grand Trunk Road running from Calcutta to Madras) passes through the alluvial region of the Province, with a branch from Cuttack to Purí. A fair weather road joins Cuttack with Sambalpur in the Central Provinces and another road from Midnapur to Sambalpur affords transit through the region of the Tributary Hill States. A railway is now (1885) under survey from Benares to Cuttack and Purí, passing on its way through Chutiá Nágpur, and designed for the benefit of the enormous crowds of pilgrims which flock to the Hindu shrines of Benares Gya, and Purí. The distance from Mughal Sarái, near Benares where the railway will start, to Purí, the Orissa terminus, is 567 miles. This line will be of especial importance as a famine protective work. At present Orissa is almost isolated from the world, being dependent for communication with the north, south and west on bullock tracks, and with the east on the seaports which are unsuitable for ships of any considerable tonnage. The means of rapidly throwing provisions into the Province, in case of famine, are inadequate. Vessels must unload into lighters or small country craft, of which the supply along the coast is small, and during the monsoon or rainy period the unloading is both difficult and dangerous. The canal system of Orissa, regarded as a means of communication can carry comparatively small quantities of grain, and that slowly. The High Level Canal was originally designed to provide a navigable trade route between Cuttack and Calcutta 230 miles. The Orissa Canal has not however, been carried beyond the river Salandi in Balasor District, where the Canal ends opposite Bhadrakh town. The section intended to connect the Orissa Canal with the Midnapur Canal has for a time at least, been abandoned. The Kendrapára Canal is navigable only from Cuttack (False Point) to Márságha. The Táldanda Canal, intended for both navigation and irrigation connects the city of Cuttack with the main branch of the Mahánadi within tidal range (52 miles). The Machhgáon Canal connects Cuttack with the mouth of the Devi (53 miles). Its chief purpose is irrigation. A general view of the Orissa Canal system, its irrigation capabilities and financial aspects, will be found in the article on the MAHANADI RIVER, *ante*, Vol. ix. pp. 160–163.

Education.—Education is satisfactorily advanced in British Orissa, and one boy out of every three of school going age is at school. The number of primary schools in the Orissa Division in 1883–84 was 8920, with 104,953 pupils. The indigenous schools numbered 73 with 958 pupils. The payments by results system of State aid was introduced into Balasor District in 1877, into Cuttack in 1878, and into Purí in 1879, and has resulted in the absorption of the indigenous institutions of the territory. Under this system, each District has its staff of inspec-

RIVER, distribute the water for irrigation, and utilize it for navigation and commerce.

Sea Inundations.—The Orissa coast is also subject to cyclones and devastating tidal waves from the ocean. Situated as it is at the converging extremity of the Bay of Bengal, storms from the south heap up the waters on its shore. Such storms are frequently accompanied by a heavy rainfall, which simultaneously floods the rivers, especially the Mahanadi. The elevated level of the sea, with its high incoming tide, then meets the rivers in a state of flood. The result is a storm wave, which sweeps over the maritime tract, submerging the jungle, and drowning the sparse hamlets of that desolate region. A terrible catastrophe of this kind occurred in the autumn of 1885. The lighthouse establishment was buried under water and a large number of people at False Point, including some of the port officials and their families, perished. The destruction to cattle and property was on an enormous scale. The storm wave rushed in a few hours over several hundred square miles, obliterating all vestiges of human habitation. The shipping at False Point harbour and along the coast also suffered severely. Several vessels were driven on shore, and numberless native craft were destroyed in the creeks and lesser harbours.

The Famine of 1866.—The famine of 1866 and the diseases consequent thereon, which are estimated by the Famine Commissioners to have robbed Orissa of one-fourth of its population, deserve somewhat detailed notice. Up to October 1865 rice continued to be tolerably cheap in Cuttack, and had not reached at all near 21 lbs. per rupee (2s.), which the Collector of an Orissa District would consider a famine price authorizing relief operations. In Purí District the prospect was gloomy to a degree, and prices there were about two and a half times their average rates. When the expected rain had not fallen by October 20, panic set in, the rice trade stopped, the country ceased to supply the towns, the *bázárs* of Cuttack and Purí closed, and the Commissioner of Orissa in consequence telegraphed the position of affairs for the information of Government. On November 6 the Commissioner reported that rice was priced at 16 lbs. to the rupee; on the 11th December he recommended the establishment of Relief Committees, but it was not until April 1866 that actual want set widely in, when a rupee only purchased 11 lbs. of common rice, when death by starvation was imminent for the poorer classes, and when the general appearance of the land and the people bespoke the awful presence of famine. From June to July prices continued to rise, and in the latter month were eight times their normal amount; in most places rice was not to be obtained at all, and the people had recourse to the grass of the fields as food. Meanwhile, the establishments of the country began to grow disorganized. On the 28th May the Com-

missioner telegraphed to Government as follows:—'Rice with utmost difficulty procurable in insufficient quantity at 4½ *sers* (105 *tolás*) per rupee. *Bázárs* again partially closed. Only one day's rations in store for troops, who are reported discontented. Commissariat have refused assistance; crime increasing daily. Public works and relief works stopped for want of food. I recommend immediate importation of rice for use of troops, for jails, and to feed labourers on relief works and to supply food to starving through Relief Committees. Rice can be landed at Balasor river, False Point, or mouth of Dhámrá river for Cuttack. I will arrange to do so. *Mahájans* (merchants) would supply on their own account, if Government gave a tug steamer to tow ships down the coast; no rains, and the early-sown rice crop in danger.'

This telegram was followed up by one from the Cuttack Local Relief Committee to Government on the 29th May:—'The Committee, observing that the market price of the very coarsest rice is 3½ Cuttack *sers* per rupee, and that supplies to any amount, even at that high price, are not procurable, resolved that an urgent application be made to the Government of Bengal for importation of one *lákh* of rupees (£10,000) worth of rice direct from Calcutta to False Point by steamer.' On the same day, the Lieutenant-Governor directed the Board of Revenue to at once arrange for sending rice from Calcutta to Balasor, False Point, and Dhámrá, as proposed by the Commissioner.

Meanwhile the Committee had been extending their operations for gratuitous relief. In June, orders were given to send 500 *maunds* of rice to Kendrápárá, and to raise the daily allowance to each pauper there. Gratuitous distributions were commenced at False Point; six branch relief houses were opened in Cuttack town; and it was resolved to open centres at Jájpur, Táldandá, and two other places in different parts of the District, besides that already opened at Kendrápárá. Rice was also entrusted to the officers of the Irrigation Company for distribution. The Superintending Engineer had promised to provide light labour for those who, though not up to full work, were capable of doing something, and who were to be remunerated by a daily portion of food from the Committee's centres. The introduction of this light labour considerably reduced the number of those receiving gratuitous relief.

During July, resolutions were passed that, in the light labour yard, a certain minimum of daily work should be required from each pauper, on the performance of which he should be entitled to rations; and that any work done in excess of the minimum should be paid for upon a scale which would enable an industrious man to earn an *ánná* a day in addition to his rations; that persons in receipt of more than Rs. 10 (£1) a month should be allowed to purchase rice from the Committee

at low rates, that low rate sales should continue to be made to selected individuals at the rate of 5 *sers* per rupee, but that no more than 4 *annas* (6d.) worth was to be sold to each person daily. At the meetings in August it was decided that labour should be paid for in uncooked rice, that all orphans and stray children should be searched for, clothed and fed, that a system should be introduced of supplying yarn to be spun in their houses by widows and respectable females, who should be paid for their labour in rice. Arrangements were also made for clothing the naked, and for providing additional hospital accommodation for the sick. On the 10th August the Committee resolved to raise the allowance of cooked rations to 7 local *chhatáks* (18 ozs.) for an adult, and 4 *chhatáks* for a child. The rates of relief sales were also reduced to 6 *sers* per rupee of good, and 9 *sers* per rupee of inferior rice. On the 7th September they were further lowered to 7 *sers* of good and 11 *sers* of inferior rice for the rupee. The establishment of additional relief centres in the rural districts was also rapidly pushed on. The extension in the Committee's operations is shown by the following statement of the relief given in the last week of each month from June to October:—

OPERATIONS OF THE RELIEF COMMITTEE, JUNE—OCTOBER 1866

Last week of	Number of Centres in Operation	Number of Bags of Rice given in Gratuitous Relief	Number of Bags sold at Cheap Rates	Daily average Number of Persons Relieved	Number included in previous column who did light labour
June,	4	54	113	1,301	220
July	23	258	628	8,164	1,665
August	32	736	821	20,562	5,303
September,	41	1793	1574	32,000	15,000
October	43	2556	841	33,210	13,449

Government relief was also afforded to the distressed in the shape of public works. These were of two kinds, namely, works executed by officers of the Public Works Department, and those supervised by the local District officers. During the last seven months of the official year 1865–66 (October 1865 to April 1866 inclusive), the sum of £7201 was expended in public works out of a budget allotment of £11,248. During the first seven months of 1866–67 (May to November 1866 inclusive), £5353 was further expended, making a total of £16,801 expended by the Public Works officers from the commencement of the distress in October 1865 till its end

in November 1866. During the same fourteen months, the sum of £1358 was also expended in works under the supervision of the District officers.

The general condition of the country from June to September may be pictured from the following paragraphs, quoted *in extenso* from the Report of the Famine Commissioners (vol. i. pp. 93, 94):—'In June, all Orissa was plunged in one universal famine of extreme severity. Although there never were such crowds of starving people and such mortality in the town of Cuttack as in Balasor and Bhadrakh, the state of Cuttack District, in which famine had been so recently discovered, was already as bad as possible. Mr. Kirkwood says that in June, at Táldandá, the distress could not be exaggerated; it was impossible to keep any sort of order among the famishing crowd, and "for miles round you heard their yell for food." The relief afforded by importation was as yet extremely small; in fact, except in the town of Balasor, hardly appreciable. In Balasor town several thousand persons were fed throughout the month; but at Bhadrakh, and in the interior of the District, the unrelieved distress was very great. In Purí, there having been no importation by sea, the relief afforded was very small. There was not, at this time, the same visible rush of starving masses in Purí as in the other Districts,—a fact due, no doubt, in part to the inability of the Collector to offer food, and n part attributed to the greater exhaustion of the people and the greater mortality which had already occurred. The only redeeming circumstance was that the rains had commenced very favourably; the agricultural classes (who set apart the seed-grain as something sacred, and keep it in a different shape from that intended for food) had still seed to sow most of their fields; and for those who could hope to live till harvest, there was a prospect of relief in the distant future.

'The mortality may be said to have reached its culminating point at the beginning of the second week of August, during the heavy rains which preceded, and caused, the disastrous floods of this same year. The people were then in the lowest stage of exhaustion; the emaciated crowds collected at the feeding stations had no sufficient shelter, and the cold and wet seems to have killed them in fearful numbers. The defect of shelter was remedied, but the people throughout evinced great dislike to occupy the sheds erected for them. In August, the mountain streams which intersect Orissa rose to an almost unprecedented height; the embankments were topped and breached in all directions, and the whole of the low-lying country was flooded by an inundation which lasted for an unusual time, and which caused the terrible aggravation of the distress. Mr. Kirkwood thus reported to the Collector:—"The houseless poor looked in vain for shelter from rain that penetrated every-

where. The known deaths from diarrhœa and dysentery and other similar diseases increased greatly. It is feared that the unknown deaths must have been still more numerous, for persons could not reach the *dánd chhatras* or relief depots, to which alone they looked for support. In most of the low lying lands, the *biáli* or autumn rice crop, which would have been reaped in another week or fortnight, was almost entirely destroyed, and the young cold weather crops suffered much from protracted immersion. Although new relief centres were opened, yet in several cases it was found quite impossible to supply those already opened with rice, owing to the boats from False Point being unable to make way against the powerful current that then came down; and at several centres operations were altogether suspended. The result of this was a great aggravation of the already existing distress; for those who were congregated at the centres found, when the stock of rice ran out, that they were cut off by the floods from other aid; and many died from sheer starvation.

'In September there was some relief, not only by the greater extension and better supply of the feeding centres and sale depots, but also from the ripening of the small early crop of rice in tracts which had escaped the flood. At best however the distress was still but a degree less than before: rice still sold at 6, and even 5 *sers* for the rupee; and it may be doubted whether the results of previous suffering, joined to its present continuance and the effect of unaccustomed food on those who were much reduced, did not increase the distress.

'In November the new crop began to come into the market in considerable quantity, and then the general famine may be said to have come to an end. The people returned to their avocations, leaving only the very emaciated, the orphans, and the widows. Considerable distress however, still existed in the unfortunate tracts which had suffered a second calamity by the floods of August, particularly in the Kendrápara Subdivision; and in these, relief operations were continued for some time further.'

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Orissa is the same as that of Southern Bengal, and may be divided into three seasons, the hot, the rainy, and the cold. The hot season commences in March and lasts till about the middle of June, the rains last from the middle of June to October, and the cold weather from the beginning of November till the end of February. The Meteorological Department has two stations in Orissa,—one at False Point lighthouse, and the other at Cuttack town. In 1881, the maximum temperature at the former was 103° F. in April, and the minimum 49° S F. in January; at the latter the maximum was 109° F. in April, and the minimum 51° S F. in January. At Cuttack town during the four months of March, April, May, and

June the thermometer registered over 100° F. The rainfall of Orissa is gauged at Cuttack, False Point, Purí, and Balasor. At Cuttack the average fall for 24 years ending 1881 was 56½ inches; at False Point, for 15 years ending 1881, it was 73 inches; at Purí, 56 inches; and at Balasor, 66·6 inches.

Cholera always breaks out in the months of June, July, and August, being brought by the pilgrims bound to or from the great festival of Jagannáth. Measles appear to be unusually prevalent in Cuttack city and District. Small-pox generally makes its appearance about the beginning of the year, and as a rule ends before the middle of April. The Civil Surgeon states that its regular appearance during these months is owing to the practice of inoculation with small-pox matter. The inoculators preserve the virus in cotton, and commence operations about the end of December or beginning of January. Small-pox thus spreads to the unprotected, and becomes general throughout the District. The Uriyás are perfectly regardless of contagion; and it is no uncommon sight to see people in the streets, or walking about the crowded market-places, covered with the disease. Ancient prejudice stands in the way of vaccination, and even the more enlightened natives of Orissa will seldom allow their children to be touched with vaccine matter. The Civil Surgeon reports favourably of the precautions which have been adopted to keep the pilgrims (the main cause of cholera epidemics) out of the town of Cuttack. This is effected by a sanitary cordon drawn round the municipal limits.

There are 14 hospitals and dispensaries in British Orissa (1883), entertaining 1785 in-door patients in that year and 58,743 out-door patients; average daily attendance, in-door and out-door, 440. Total income of dispensaries, £3344, of which £433 represented native contributions. Three of the dispensaries are in Purí District, namely, Purí, Piplí, and Khurdhá; number of patients treated in these three dispensaries, in-door 559, and out-door 12,326; almost all of whom were pilgrims to the shrine of Jagannáth. The registered death-rate for Orissa in 1883 was about 21 per thousand, but the registration is not to be relied on as accurate.

Orissa Tributary States.—A cluster of 17 dependent territories which form the mountainous background of the Orissa Division, Lower Bengal. They lie between 19° 52′ 15″ and 22° 34′ 15″ N. lat., and between 83° 36′ 30″ and 87° 13′ E. long. The territory is situated between the Mahánadi Delta and the Central Provinces. The following table exhibits statistics of the 17 States in 1883–84:—

[1] Formerly, the Orissa Tributary States were 19 in number, but two have since been confiscated, and are now administered as British territory, namely, Angúl, confiscated in 1847 for the rebellion of the Rájá; and Banki, confiscated in 1840, the chief having been convicted of murder.

TRIBUTARY STATES OF ORISSA IN 1883-84

	Names of States.	Area in Square Miles.	Population.	Tribute to British Government.	Estimated Revenue of the Chiefs.
1	Athgarh,	168	[illegible]	[illegible]	£1 494
2	Athmallik,	730	[illegible]	45	1 500
3	Baramba,	134	[illegible]	140	[illegible]
4	Bod (including Kandhmals),	2 064	130 103	80	1 000
5	Daspalla,	568	41 608	66	[illegible]
6	Dhenkanal,	1 463	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
7	Hindol,	312	[illegible]	55	1 000
8	Keunjhar,	3 096	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
9	Khandpara,	244	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
10	Morbhanj,	[illegible]	[illegible]	106	[illegible]
11	Narsinhpur,	199	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
12	Nilgiri,	278	[illegible]	[illegible]	[illegible]
13	Nayagarh,	588	[illegible]	[illegible]	5 000
14	Pal Lahara,	452	14 887	Included under Keunjhar	500
15	Ranpur,	203	[illegible]	140	1 500
16	Talcher,	[illegible]	[illegible]	103	[illegible]
17	Tigaria,	46	[illegible]	88	800
	Total,	15 187	1 469 142	[illegible]	[illegible]

A separate article on each will be found under its own name, and the following brief account must suffice here for the whole:—

Boundaries.—The Orissa Tributary States are bounded on the north by the Bengal Districts of Singbhum and Midnapur; on the east by British Orissa; on the south by Ganjam District of the Madras Presidency; and on the west by the Tributary States of Patna, Sonpur, Radhákol, and Bamrá, in the Central Provinces, and Bonai and Saranda in Chutiá Nágpur.

General Aspect of the Country.—The Tributary States of Orissa occupy a succession of ranges rolling backwards towards Central India. They form, however, three watersheds from south to north, with fine valleys between, down which pour the three great rivers of the interior table-land. The southernmost is the valley of the Mahanadi, at some places closely hemmed in by peaks on either side, and forming picturesque passes; at others spreading out into fertile plains, green with rice, and watered by a thousand mountain streams. At the Barmul Pass, the river winds round magnificently wooded hills from 1500 to 2500 feet high. Crags and peaks of a wild beauty overhang its channel, which at one part is so narrow that the water rises 70 feet in time of flood. From the north bank of the Mahanadi, the ranges tower up to a fine watershed, from 2000 to 2500 feet high, running north-west and south-east, [illegible]

forms the boundary of the States of Narsinghpur and Barambá. On the other side they slope down upon the States of Hindol and Dhenkánal, supplying countless little feeders to the Bráhmaní, which occupies the second of the three valleys. From the north bank of this river, the hills again roll back into magnificent ranges, running in the same general direction as before, but more confused and wider, till they rise into the Keunjhar watershed, with peaks from 2500 to 3500 feet high, culminating in Maláyagiri, 3895 feet above the sea, in the State of Pal Lahára. This watershed, in turn, slopes down into the third valley, that of the Baitaraní, from whose eastern or left bank rise the hitherto almost unexplored mountains of Morbhanj, heaped upon each other in noble masses of rock, from 3000 to nearly 4000 feet high, sending countless tributaries to the Baitaraní on the south, and pouring down the Burábalang, with the feeders of the Subarnarekhá, on the north. The hill ranges are densely wooded to the summit, and, except at the regular passes, are inaccessible to beasts of burden. The intermediate valleys yield rich crops in return for negligent cultivation; and a vast quantity of land might be reclaimed on their outskirts and lower slopes.

Rivers.—The principal rivers are the Mahánadi, the Bráhmaní, the Baitaraní, and the Burábalang. The Mahánadi enters the Tributary States of Orissa in Bod, forming the boundary between that State on the south, and Athmallik and Angúl on the north, for forty-nine miles. It then divides Khandpárá and Bánkí on the south, from Narsinghpur, Barambá, and Athgarh on the north. In the last State, it debouches through a narrow gorge upon the Cuttack delta. It is everywhere navigable throughout the Tributary States, and up to Sambalpur, by flat-bottomed boats of about twenty-five tons burden, and a considerable trade is carried on. Precious stones of different kinds are found in its bed. The river would afford valuable facilities for navigation but for the numerous sandbanks in its channel. The boatmen carry rakes and hoes, with which they clear a narrow passage just sufficient to let their craft pass. Where rocks impede the nagivation, there is plenty of depth on either side; and a little blasting would enlarge the water-way, and thus lessen the force of the rapids. When full, it is a magnificent river, varying from one to two miles in breadth, and of great depth. It is liable to heavy floods, which have been described in *The Statistical Account of Bengal* (Cuttack District, vol. xviii.), where a comprehensive account of the Mahánadi will be found. Its chief feeders in the Tributary States are—on its north or left bank, the Sápuá in Athgarh, and the Dandátapá and Máno in Athmallik; on its south or right bank, the Kusumí and Kamáí in Khandpárá, with the Jorámu, Hinámandá, Gánduní, Bolát, Sálkí Bágh, Maríní, and Tel. This last stream divides the Orissa Tributary States from those of the Central

Provinces, forming the boundary between the States of Bod and Sonpur

The Bráhmaní enters the Tributary States in Tálcher, and passes through Tálcher and Dhenkánal into Cuttack District It is navigable for a few months of the year as far up as four miles below Talcher, where there are some dangerous rocks, which might however be easily blasted. Common jasper abounds, along with other precious stones in the bed of the river The Baitaraní rises in the State of Keunjhar and forms the boundary between that State and Morbhanj for forty miles In the dry season it is navigable by small boats but with difficulty as far as Anandapur, a large village in Keunjhar on its south or right bank in lat 21° 13 and long 86° 11 A considerable trade is carried on at this place, the rural and forest produce brought by land from the south west being bartered for salt, carried by boats from the coast The Burábalang rises in Morbhanj and has been fully described in *The Statistical Account of Bengal* (Balasor District, vol xviii) which also see for an account of the Salandí and Subarnarekha

No important instances of diluvion are known in the courses of these rivers The banks are generally abrupt, occasionally rising into fine heights, and the beds sandy, with the exception of that of the Baitaraní, which is rocky Nor have any important islands been formed by the rivers within the Tributary States, but rocks and wooded cliffs have here and there been thrown up in the middle of the Baitaraní and the Mahánadi The banks are generally buried in jungle but in many places they might be turned into fertile fields The Baitaraní is popularly rumoured to have a subterraneous passage but in reality merely flows through two rocky clefts, called the Cow's Nostrils The rivers form no lakes, and are far beyond tidal range None of them are fordable during the rains months, but in the dry season they are all fordable at certain parts of their course Three towns on the Mahanadi subsist by river traffic, namely, Budeswar in Banki and Padmabati and Kantilo in Khandpará These communities carry salt spices cocoa nuts and brass utensils up to Sambalpur, in the Central Provinces bringing thence in exchange, cotton, wheat, oil seeds clarified butter, oil molasses iron, turmeric *tasar* cloth, rice, etc There are also several smaller towns on both banks of the Mahánadi which carry on trade in timber, bamboos oil seeds and other local produce On the Bráhmaní the only large villages are Baulpur and Bhuvan in the State of Dhenkanal with a thriving river traffic in resin, lac, oil seeds, etc All the river banks are partly inhabited by fishermen The fisheries are of no great value

Minerals — A coal field exists in Talcher, and is believed to exist in Angul and along the banks of the Mahanadi Limestone and building materials are found in all the States Iron is found in Morbhanj, Keunjhar, and other regions.

Population.—The total population of the Tributary States of Orissa consisted in 1872 of 1,155,509 persons, namely, 581,458 males and 574,051 females: in 1881 of 1,469,142 persons, namely, 742,566 males and 726,576 females. In the latter year, the proportion of males in the total population amounted to 50·5 per cent., and the average density of the population was 96·7 persons per square mile. Classifying the population according to religion, the Census of 1881 gives the following results:—Hindus, males 555,642, and females 543,575; total, 1,099,217, or 74·8 per cent.: Muhammadans, males 3057, and females 2672; total, 5729: Buddhists, 540: Christians, males 229, and females 229; total, 458: Sikhs, 7: and 'others,' males 183,347, and females 179,844; total, 363,191, or 24·8 per cent. Ethnically divided, the population of the Tributary States consists almost solely of (1) Hindu Uriyás, who inhabit the valleys, and who form the largest and most important section of the population; and (2) non-Hindu aboriginal and semi-aboriginal hill tribes, such as Kandhs, Savars, Gonds, Bhumijs, Santáls, Kols, Páns, Bhuiyás, Bathudis, Kháiras, etc., who figure in the above classification as 'others,' and who number 363,191, or 24·8 per cent. of the whole population. Details of these aboriginal and semi-aboriginal tribes, who have professed Hinduism, are as follows:—Kandhs, 28,865; Savars, 22,275; Gonds, 17,863; Bhumijs, 11,000; Santáls, 922; Kols, 2962; Bhuiyás, 36,250; Páns, 92,488.

The aboriginal tribes are most numerous in the mountainous jungle tracts of MORBHANJ, KEUNJHAR, and BOD. The most important of them are the KANDHS, who inhabit a large tract of country in Northern Madras, where they number 205,045; in the Native States of the Central Provinces, where they number 147,768; and in the Tributary States and British Districts of Orissa, where they are returned as numbering 36,911. This last is a considerable under-estimate, as the number of Kandhs in the Tributary States of Orissa in 1872 was returned at 75,531. In 1881, the population of the Kandh-máls alone, a tract attached to Bod State, but under direct British administration, was returned at 58,959—a tract which, as implied by its name, is almost entirely populated by Kandhs, who are not returned as such in the detailed Census Tables. The other Orissa States in which the Kandhs are strongest are Daspallá, Angúl, and Nayágarh. They are also scattered through nearly all the other States of Orissa, and are met with in the British Districts and in Northern Madras. They form one of a group of non-Aryan races who still occupy the position on the Bay of Bengal assigned to them by the Greek geographers 1500 years ago.

The Kandh idea of Government remains purely patriarchal to this day. The family is strictly ruled by the father. The grown-up sons have no property during his life, but live in his house with their wives

and children, and all share the common meal prepared by the grand-mother. The clan consists of a number of families sprung from a common father; and the tribe is made up in like manner of a number of clans who claim descent from a common ancestor. The head of the tribe is usually the eldest son of the patriarchal family; but if the eldest son is not fit for the post, he is set aside and an uncle or a younger brother is appointed. According to the old Kandh theory of existence, a state of war might lawfully be presumed against all neighbours with whom no express stipulation had been made to the contrary. Murders within the tribe were punished by blood-revenge; the kinsmen *within a certain degree being one and all bound to pursue and kill* the slayer, unless appeased by a payment of cattle or grain. A stolen article must be returned, or its equivalent made good. This may seem a slight penalty for theft. But the Kandh twice convicted of stealing was driven forth from his tribe, the greatest punishment known to the race. A favourite method of settling disputes among the Kandhs was trial by combat. Such duels, and annual raids upon the lowlands, formed the principal recreations of the tribe till they came under British rule, forty years ago.

The Kandh is a well made man; and his boldly developed muscles, broad forehead, and full but not thick lips, present a type of intelligence, strength, and determination, blended with good humour, which make him an agreeable companion in peace and a formidable enemy in war. He never asks for quarter, and adorns himself for battle as for a feast. The Patriarch or Chief used to send out swift messengers from glen to glen bearing an arrow as a summons to war. Before engaging each side sacrificed to the gods. The most approved form *was to go on fighting day after day, till one side or the other was* exterminated. Such a battle yielded a pleasurable excitement, not only to the warriors engaged, but to both their villages. The women and old men stood behind the combatants, handing them pots of water and cooked food, together with much good advice as to the conduct of the fight. The father selects a wife for his son, and usually chooses one older than the boy. The girl may be fourteen while the boy is only ten. The reason of this is, that the bride remains as a servant in her new father-in-law's house till her boy husband grows old enough to live with her.

The Kandh engages only in husbandry and war, and despises all other work. But attached to each village is a row of hovels inhabited by a lower race, who are not allowed to hold land, or to go forth to battle, or to join in the village worship. *These poor people* do the dirty work of the hamlet, and can never rise in the social scale. They can give no account of their origin, but they are supposed to be the remnants of ruder tribes, whom the Kandhs found in possession of

the hills when they themselves were pushed backwards by the Aryans from the plains. The Kandhs have many deities—race gods, tribe gods, family gods, and a multitude of malignant spirits—each one of whom must be appeased with blood. But their great divinity is the Earth-god, who represents the productive energy of nature. Twice each year, at sowing time and at harvest, and in all special seasons of distress, the earth-god required a human sacrifice. The duty of providing the victims rested with the lower race of out-castes attached to the Kandh village. Bráhmans and Kandhs were the only two classes exempted from being sacrificed; and an ancient rule ordained that the offering must be bought with a price. Men of the lower race, attached to the villages, kidnapped victims from the plains; and it was a mark of respectability for a Kandh hamlet to keep a small stock in reserve, as they said, 'to meet sudden demands for atonement.' The victim, on being brought to the hamlet, was welcomed at every threshold, daintily fed, and kindly treated, till the fatal day arrived. He was then solemnly sacrificed to the Earth-god; the Kandhs shouting in his dying ear, 'We bought you with a price; no sin rests with us.' His flesh and blood were distributed among the village lands, a fragment being solemnly buried in each field in the newly turned furrows. In 1835, the Kandhs passed under British rule, and these sacrifices had to cease. The proud spirit of the clans shrank from compulsion; but after some hostilities and many tribal councils they gave up their stock of human victims, as a present to their new suzerain. Care was taken by the British Government that they should not obtain fresh ones. A law was passed declaring kidnapping for human sacrifice to be a capital offence; and the Kandh priests were led to discover that buffaloes did quite as well for the Earth-god, under British rule, as human sacrifices in the old times. The practice ceased under the firm supervision of the tribes by English officers, who established hill-fairs, made roads, and brought this wild isolated people into mercantile relations with the rest of mankind. For further details regarding this interesting tribe, see the article KANDHS, *ante*, vol. vii. pp. 400–405.

Occupation.—The Census of 1881 distributes the adult male population of the Tributary States of Orissa into the following six main groups:—(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 18,371; (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging-house keepers, 5983; (3) commercial class, including bankers, merchants, carriers, etc., 9608; (4) agricultural and pastoral class, including shepherds, 250,379; (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 87,844; and (6) indefinite and unproductive class, comprising all male children and persons of unspecified occupation, 370,381.

Throughout the whole 17 Tributary States of Orissa, covering an

area of 15 187 square miles, and containing a population of 1,469,142 persons, there is only 1 town (Khandpára) containing as many as between five thousand and six thousand inhabitants, and only 7 towns with upwards of two thousand The number of villages with less than two *hundred inhabitants in 1881 was 9101* with from two to five hundred, 1748, with from five hundred to one thousand 305 with from one to two thousand, 50 A large village generally gathers around the house or fortress (*garh*) of the Chief permanent collections of huts grow up at convenient sites for trade along the rivers or r[illegible] but with these exceptions, a village in the Tributary States simply means the communal homestead of a cultivated valley Such homesteads however, generally contain a larger outside population than the more simple Kandh villages For, besides the landless low castes, they require a small body of shopkeepers and tradesmen suited to the more advanced state of social existence which they have reached The one town with a population exceeding 5000 is Khandpára situated on the right bank of the Mahánadi It contains (1881) 5343 inhabitants and is a considerable seat of trade

Religion and Caste—As in other parts of Orissa, the great mass of the inhabitants of the Tributary States are Hindus with the aboriginal fetish superstitions more or less distinctly preserved According to the Census of 1881, Bráhmans number 71,672, Rajputs 30,30 Baniyas (traders), 16,664, Chasás (cultivators), 145 841, Dhobis (washermen) 15,468, Goálás (cowherds), 123 818, Khandaits (the ancient peasant militia of Orissa, now almost all cultivators) 66 862, Tantis (weavers) 25 066, and *Telis* (oilmen) 44 535 The number of M[illegible] is very small, and consists of the descendants of those who took service as soldiers under the Rájás in the time of the Maráthas when there was constant fighting between the rival States The Muhammadan religion does not make any progress among the people Sunnis number 4573, Shias, 333, Wahabis 15 and 'others, 810 In Athgarh there is a village called Chhagan Golra and in Nilgiri one called Mitrapur, entirely inhabited by agricultural *communities* of native Christians The principal places of pilgrimage are Kapilás in Dhenkanal, Kusaleswar and Jotipur in Keunjhar, Mantir in Morbhanj and Sámakul in Nayágarh—all of which attract annual crowds of devotees.

Agriculture—Tillage is conducted in two methods common to the whole Tributary States—(1) Rice cultivation in hollows and on low lands, with a command of irrigation. In the valleys, where the mountain rivulets can be utilized, the peasants throw a dam across the stream and store up the water The lower levels thus secure a supply of moisture the whole year round, and wet rice cultivation goes on throughout the twelve months. (2) Upland or *tala* cultivation, upon

newly cleared patches of land, which depends entirely on the local rainfall. The forest is cut down and burnt upon the spot; and the soil, thus enriched with salts, yields abundant crops of early rice, oil-seeds, and cotton. At the end of four or five years, such clearings are abandoned for new ones, and the land relapses into jungle. After years of rest, when a fresh growth of forest has sprung up, the trees and shrubs are again cut down and burnt, the whole process of clearing and cultivating for another period of five years being repeated *de novo.*

Trade and Communications.—The population is generally scanty, and having abundance of waste lands to cultivate, is disinclined to emigration. Trade and commerce, owing to the miserable condition of communications, are of no importance. There are said to be coal-fields in Tálcher and Angúl, and it is possible, if the Cuttack and Benares Railway be constructed, that they may be found of value. At present they cannot be worked. Although the Mahánadi, Bráhmaní, and Baitaraní rivers either pass through or take their rise in the Tributary States, they are only navigable for native boats from June to December, and the navigation is much impeded by large rocks. There are no land routes deserving the name, except some local roads in Dhenkanal, Keunjhar, and Morbhanj. The two existing lines from Cuttack to Sambalpur, one through Angúl and the other through Sonpur, are submerged in parts during the rainy season, and are neither bridged nor metalled.

Forests.—The Tributary States of Orissa are among the best timber-producing tracts in India; but the native chiefs, by whom the greater portion is owned, have taken little care of their forests. They have established no reserves, and the forests are recklessly wasted without any corresponding gain to agriculture or to the general prosperity of the country. As the territory is opened up and the timber becomes more valuable, the Chiefs will perhaps be induced to preserve the forests. The Kandh-mal forests are considered to be valuable. Reserved forests in Angúl estate have not yet been accurately surveyed, but the total area is reported approximately at 170,880 acres.

Administration.—The Chiefs rule their territories much according to their own ideas of what is right. The British system is to leave each State under its hereditary Rájá, and allow him jurisdiction in civil disputes, and in all crimes not of a heinous character. The Chiefs are amenable to the British Commissioner of the Province, in his character as Superintendent of the Tributary States; this officer has jurisdiction in all serious offences, and may imprison criminals for a term not exceeding seven years. Sentences for a longer period, although passed by the Commissioner, must be reported to the Bengal Government for

confirmation, and it is the Government alone that can imprison or punish a Chief The treaty engagements entered into by the Rajás are generally of the following nature —Besides holding themselves in submission and loyal obedience to the British Government, they are bound on demand to surrender any residents of Orissa who may have fled into their territories, also any of their own subjects who may have committed offences in British territory to furnish supplies to British troops when passing through their territories and in case of any neighbouring Rajá or other person offering opposition to the British Government, they are on demand to depute a contingent of their own troops to assist the forces of Government Each Rajá pays a small tribute, now fixed in perpetuity, and bearing a very small ratio to his total income In return for this tribute they are assured absolute security from foreign enemies, from domestic rebellions, and from inter tribal feuds. In one case, that of Angul, a Chief has been dispossessed for waging war, but his family enjoy pensions from Government. In another, that of Banki, the Rajá was convicted of flagrant murder and his estate confiscated Both these States are now under direct Government management, the revenues being collected, and the affairs of the State generally managed, by a receiver (*tahsildár*) The other 17 States still remain under their native Chiefs or are temporarily managed for Chiefs in their minority, and the only cases of English interference have been to prevent the aggression of the strong upon the weak or to support the authority of the hereditary Chiefs against their domestic enemies In 1885, Baramba, Dhenkanal, and Morbhanj were administered for minor chieftains

Education in the Tributary States is backward as compared with its progress in British Orissa. The number of boys of school going age at school in the British territory is one in three in the Tributary States it is one in eight In 1883 the number of aided primary schools was 1060, and the number of pupils 13,667 indigenous schools, 10, pupils, 124 There were also 4 middle English and 8 middle vernacular schools in 1883, with an aggregate of 714 pupils The aided and inspected primary schools are gradually absorbing the indigenous institutions, owing to the latter seeking enrolment in order to obtain the benefits of the payment by results system, which is in a modified form applied to Angul, Dhenkánal Morbhanj, and Keunjhar States Two schools in the Christian village of Chhágan in Athgarh are supported by contributions from mission funds. In most of the States, the lower primary schools are left entirely to themselves, and are wholly supported by the people of the locality The total expenditure upon education in the Tributary States in 1883 was £4157, of which the British Government contributed £278.

The number of civil and revenue suits instituted during 1883 was

6774; number of offences reported, 1456; offences affecting human life, 24; *dakáiti* (gang-robbery), 5; number of convictions in criminal cases, 1072. In addition to the rural posts maintained but inefficiently by the chiefs, there are four State postal lines—from Cuttack to Angúl, from Cuttack to Dhenkánal, from Balasor to Morbhanj, and from Russel-konda in Ganjám to Bisipárá in the Kandh-máls. Two private postal lines run from Bhadrakh in Balasor to Keunjhar, and from Baripada to Bahalda.

Watch and Ward are matters of concern to the various States, there being no British system of police or imprisonment in force.

Climate, etc.—The average annual rainfall over the area of the Tributary States is 55 inches. Malarious fever is common. Vaccination is little adopted. Some of the chiefs have established dispensaries of an inferior kind.

Orissa Canal System.—*See* MAHANADI RIVER.

Otapidaram.—*Táluk* or Sub-division of Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. This extensive *táluk* occupies the north-eastern portion of the District, and includes the *zamíndári* of ETTIAPURAM. Area, 1075 square miles. Population (1881) 269,797; namely, 131,624 males and 138,173 females, dwelling in 3 towns and 373 villages, containing 54,592 houses. Hindus number 236,845; Muhammadans, 5733; Christians, 27,195; and 'others,' 24. Otapidaram *táluk* is almost wholly of a uniform character,—an extensive black cotton plain relieved by scanty and poor groves of tamarind here and there, and thickets of acacia in every tank bed. Near the coast white sands prevail, producing chiefly palmyras and acacia. A few detached masses of gneiss rock, rising abruptly from the plains, form conspicuous objects; but generally the country is almost level, rising and falling slightly in long and broad slopes, which follow the drainage lines from north-west to south-east. The South Indian Railway enters the *táluk* from Madura District a little south of Satúr, and has in the *táluk* the Maniachi junction station, Tuticorin terminus, and three road stations. Otapidaram contains TUTICORIN, the principal seaport of Tinnevelli District, and one of the most flourishing ports of the Madras Presidency. For statistics of trade, see TUTICORIN. The *táluk* contained in 1883, one civil and two criminal courts; 16 police circles (*thánás*); 153 regular police. Land revenue, £31,252.

Otapidaram.—Town in Tinnevelli District, Madras Presidency. Population (1881) 2854; number of houses, 588. Head-quarters of *tahsíldár* of Otapidaram *táluk*. Police station; post-office.

Ot-po.—Township in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma; divided into six revenue circles. To the westward, the country is mountainous; it is low in the east, and was formerly inundated on the annual rise of the Irawadi river, but is now protected by embank-

ments. Population (1877) 37,707, (1881) 70,230. Gross revenue, £17,903.

Otpo.—Town in Henzada District, Irawadi Division, Lower Burma, situated in lat. 17° 48' N., and long. 95° 20' 10" E., on the Kanyin stream, 4 miles west of the Irawadi river, and 29 miles south of Myanaung. Population (1881) 3712.

Ouchterlony.—Valley in the Nilgiri Hills, Madras Presidency.—*See* OCHTERLONY.

Oudh (*Avadh*).—Province of British India under the administration of a Chief Commissioner, who is also Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces. It lies between 25° 34' and 28° 42' N. lat., and between 79° 44' and 83° 9' E. long. Area, 24,246 square miles. Population (1881) 11,387,741. Oudh is bounded on the north-east by the independent State of Nepál; on the north-west by the Rohilkhand Division of the North-Western Provinces; on the south-west by the river Ganges; on the south-east by the Benares Division; and on the east by Bastí District. The administrative head-quarters are at Lucknow (Lakhnau), the capital of the former Kingdom of Oudh, and the main centre of population and manufactures.

The table on following page exhibits the area, population, etc., of the Province of Oudh according to the Census of 1881, with the land revenue for 1883-84.

Physical Aspects.—The Province of Oudh, the latest (until the annexation of Upper or Independent Burma in 1886) among the great kingdoms of India to fall under the direct authority of the British Government, forms the central portion of the level Gangetic plain, stretching from the Ganges in the south-west to the foot of the Nepálese Himálayas on its north-eastern boundary. It thus intervenes between two sections of the previously acquired North-Western Provinces, cutting off the Rohilkhand Division from the densely populated country around Benares.

Oudh presents throughout the monotonous features of a vast alluvial plain. In the extreme east alone, the British frontier extends close up to the lower slopes of the Himálayan system, embracing a portion of the damp and unhealthy submontane region known as the Tarái. For 60 miles along the northern border of Gonda and Bahraich Districts, the British boundary line skirts the foot of the hills; but westward of that point it recedes a little from the mountain tract, and the Tarái in this portion of the range has been ceded for the most part to the Native State of Nepál. A narrow belt of Government forest skirts the northern frontier, but all the rest of the Province consists of a fertile and densely peopled plain, only 6 per cent. of the surface being unfit for tillage. No striking features anywhere break the dead level of the horizon. Rivers form the only obstacles to the direct

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF OUDH.

(According to the Census of 1881.)

Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Occupied Houses.	Population. Total Population.	Population. Males.	Population. Females.	Density of Population per Square Mile.	Land Revenue (1883-84).
								£
Lucknow, ...	990	917	131,215	696,824	365,305	331,519	704	70,258
Unao, ...	1,747	1,686	152,008	899,069	461,167	437,902	514	142,273
Bara Banki, ...	1,768	2,061	187,557	1,026,788	523 581	503,207	580	168,343
Total Lucknow Division, .	4,505	4,694	470,780	2,622,681	1,350,053	1,272,628	582	380,874
Sítápur, ...	2,251	2,308	150,849	958,251	505,986	452,265	425	130,097
Hardoi, ...	2,312	1,882	147,073	987,630	531,704	455,926	428	133,314
Kheri, ...	2,992	1,655	142,657	831,922	415,019	386,903	278	79,728
Total Sítápur Division, . .	7,555	5,845	440,579	2,777,803	1,482,709	1,295,094	367	343,139
Faizábád, ...	1,689	2,676	206,258	1,081,419	546,174	535,245	610	110,624
Bahraich, ...	2,740	1,896	177,314	878,048	459,187	418,861	320	96,030
Gonda, ...	2,875	2,790	203,274	1,270,926	650,771	620,155	442	158,853
Total Faizábád Division, .	7,304	7,362	586 846	3,230,393	1,656,132	1,574,261	412	365,507
Rái Barelí, ...	1,738	1,762	180,548	951,905	466,906	484,999	548	130,035
Sultánpur, ...	1,708	2,460	193,052	957,912	475,125	482,787	561	112,691
Partabgarh, ...	1,436	2,214	191,508	847,047	420,730	426,317	589	98,220
Total Rái Barelí Division, .	4,882	6,436	567,908	2,756,864	1,362,761	1,394,103	565	340,946
GRAND TOTAL, . .	24,246	24,337	2,066,103	11,387,741	5,851,655	5,536,086	469	1,430,466

...ication Their course is determined by the prevailing ...ountry, which falls away gradually from the Himálayas ...s the Ganges and the sea. The general direction of ... thus from the north-west where the greatest elevation ...he jungle clad Khairigarh plateau of Kheri District) ...o feet, while the extreme south-eastern frontier is only ... sea level

...rivers traverse or skirt the plain of Oudh in converging ... the Ganges, the Gumti the Gogra and the Rapti ...ller channels seam the whole face of the country carrying ...s drainage in the rains but drying up in the hot season ...rents fed by the rains and the melting snow bring down ...es of detritus which they spread during floods over the ...plain The deposits thus accumulated consist at times of ... others of rich clay silt but in any case their accumulation ...lual rise in elevation and has been accompanied in many ... formation of unhealthy swamps at the foot of the hills. ...er rivers, except the Gumti as well as most of the smaller ...e beds hardly sunk below the general level and in times ...issed by the rains or melting snow they burst through ...n banks and carve for themselves new channels at various ...e Gumti rises in Pilibhit District of the North Western ...asses the cities of Lucknow Sultanpur and Jaunpur and ...e Ganges near Saiyidpur in Ghazipur District beyond Oudh Its tributaries are the Kathna the Sarávan the Sai and the ...udh possesses another valuable source of water supply in its shallow ponds or *jhils* many of which mark the former beds ...ing rivers. These *jhils* are of value not only as preservatives ...ondition, but also as reservoirs for irrigation and for the ... of water to cattle Only two amongst them however those ...n Partabgarh District (10 square miles) and Sandi in Hardoi ... miles) deserve the name of lakes

...try so uniform in its physical features can hardly possess ...ral sub-divisions and, accordingly the various administrative ... of Oudh do not materially differ from one another in their ... aspect. The north eastern angle comprising Gonda and ... Districts is traversed by the river Rapti and slopes south ... the deeper channel of the Gogra. Along the southern bank ...ter stream stretches the thickly inhabited District of Faizábád, ... three together compose the Division of the same name The ...stern Division of Sitápur comprises the three Districts of Kheri, ... and Hardoi extending from the Khairigarh jungles on the ...across the valleys of the Sarda and the Gumti, to the banks of ...ges opposite Kanauj The central Division of Lucknow spreads

AREA, POPULATION, ETC., OF OUDH.
(According to the Census of 1881.)

Districts.	Area in Square Miles.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Number of Occupied Houses.	Population.			Density of Population per Square Mile.	Land Revenue (1883-84).
				Total Population.	Males.	Females.		
Lucknow,	990	947	131,215	696,824	365,305	331,519	704	£ 70,258
Unao,	1,747	1,686	152,008	899,069	461,167	437,902	514	142,273
Bara Banki,	1,768	2,061	187,557	1,026,788	523,581	503,207	580	168,343
Total Lucknow Division,	4,505	4,694	470,780	2,622,681	1,350,053	1,272,628	582	380,874
Sítápur,	2,251	2,308	150,849	958,251	505,986	452,265	425	130,097
Hardoi,	2,312	1,882	147,073	987,630	531,704	455,926	428	133,314
Kheri,	2,992	1,655	142,657	831,922	445,019	386,903	278	79,728
Total Sítápur Division,	7,555	5,845	440,579	2,777,803	1,482,709	1,295,094	367	343,139
Faizábád,	1,689	2,676	206,258	1,081,419	546,174	535,245	640	110,624
Bahraich,	2,740	1,896	177,314	878,048	459,187	418,861	320	96,030
Gonda,	2,875	2,790	203,274	1,270,926	650,771	620,155	442	158,853
Total Faizábád Division,	7,304	7,362	586 846	3,230,393	1,656,132	1,574,261	442	365,507
Rái Bareli,	1,738	1,762	180,548	951,905	466,906	484,999	548	130,035
Sultánpur,	1,708	2,460	193,052	957,912	475,125	482,787	561	112,691
Partabgarh,	1,436	2,214	194,308	847,047	420,730	426,317	589	98,220
Total Rái Bareli Division,	4,882	6,436	567,908	2,756,864	1,362,761	1,394,103	565	340,946
GRAND TOTAL,	24,246	24,337	2,066,103	11,387,741	5,851,655	5,536,086	469	1,430,466

[illegible] communication. The [illegible] s[illegible] of the country [illegible] [illegible] the inhabitants [illegible] [illegible] amount [illegible] [illegible] 230 [illegible]

[illegible] ing [illegible] Numerous [illegible] of [illegible] Mountain [illegible] Large quantities of [illegible] [illegible] The [illegible] over the bare sand [illegible] of [illegible] [illegible] industry [illegible] many [illegible] All the [illegible] rivers [illegible] the foot of the hills [illegible] streams have [illegible] most of the smaller of [illegible] caused by the [illegible] general level [illegible] times their [illegible] banks and [illegible] snow, they burst through [illegible] points. The Gumti rises [illegible] District of the North-Western Provinces, passes the cities of Lucknow, Sultanpur, and Jaunpur, and flows into the Ganges near Saidpur in Ghazipur District [illegible] Oudh [illegible] Its tributaries are the Kathna, the Sarayan, the Sai, and the Nand. Oudh possesses another valuable source of water supply in the numerous shallow ponds or [illegible] many of which mark the former beds of the shifting rivers. These [illegible] are of value not only as preservatives against inundation, but also as reservoirs for irrigation and for the supply of water to cattle. Only two, however, those of Behta [illegible] District (10 square miles), and Sandi in Hardoi (14 square miles), deserve the name of lakes.

A country so uniform in its physical features can hardly possess any natural subdivisions; and accordingly its twelve administrative Districts of Oudh do not materially differ from one another in their general aspect. The north-eastern angle, comprising Gonda and Bahraich Districts, is traversed by the river Rapti, and slopes southward to the deeper channel of the Gogra. Along the southern bank of the latter stream stretches the thickly inhabited District of Faizabad, and the three together compose the Division of the same name. The north-western Division of Sitapur comprises the three Districts of Kheri, Sitapur, and Hardoi, extending from the Khairigarh jungles on the north, across the valleys of the Sarda and the Gumti, to the banks of the Ganges opposite Kanauj. The central Division of Lucknow [illegible]

from the Gogra, also to the Ganges, and includes the three populous Districts of Bara Banki on the east, Lucknow in the middle, and Unao on the west. The south-eastern Division of Rái Bareli likewise contains three Districts—Rái Bareli and Partábgarh, along the left bank of the Ganges, and Sultánpur on either side of the Gúmti.

The soil of Oudh consists of a rich alluvial deposit, the detritus of the Himálayan system, washed down into the Ganges valley by ages of fluvial action. Usually a light loam, it passes here and there into pure clay, or degenerates occasionally into barren sand. Water may be reached at an average depth of 25 feet, with a minimum of 4 or 5 feet in the Tarái tract, and a maximum of 60 feet south of the Gogra. The narrow margin of uncultivable land consists chiefly of extensive *úsar* plains, found in the southern and western Districts, which are covered by the deleterious saline efflorescence known as *reh.* Only the hardiest grasses will grow upon these waste patches. The efflorescence has been variously attributed to percolation and to over-cropping.

Oudh possesses no valuable minerals. Salt was extensively manufactured during the native rule, but the British Government has prohibited the industry for fiscal reasons. Nodules of carbonate of lime (*kankar*) occur in considerable deposits, and are employed for metalling the roads.

The general aspect of the Province is that of a rich expanse of waving and very varied crops, interspersed by numerous ponds or lakes, mango groves, and bamboo clumps. The villages lie thickly scattered, consisting of low thatched cottages, surrounded by patches of garden land, or groves of banyan, *pípal*, and *pákar* trees. The dense foliage of the mango plantations mark the sites of almost every little homestead; no less an area than 1000 square miles being covered by these valuable fruit-trees. Tamarinds overhang the huts of the poorer classes, while the neighbourhood of a wealthy family may be generally recognised by the graceful clumps of bamboo. Plantains, guavas, jack-fruit, limes, and oranges add further beauty to the village plots. The scenery, as a whole, has few claims to attention, except so far as trees and water may occasionally combine to produce a pleasing effect; but the varied colouring of the ripe crops, the sky, and the groves or buildings, often charms the eye under the soft haze of a tropical atmosphere.

The flora of the reserved Government forests is rich and varied. The *sál* tree yields the most important timber; the finest logs are cut in the Khairigarh jungles and floated down the Gogra to Bahramghát, where they are sawn by steam into planks or beams. The hard wood of the *shisham* is also valuable; while several other timber-trees afford material for furniture or roofing shingles. Among the scattered jungles in various parts of the Province, the *mahuá* tree is prized alike for its edible flowers,

its fruit, and its timber. The *jhils* supply the villages with wild rice, the roots and seeds of the lotus, and the water-nut known as *singhara*. The area of reserved forest in Oudh in 1881 was 1079 square miles; the area protected from fire, 173,754 acres; number of trees felled by the forest officers, 87,388; value of timber and other produce sold, £27,597. The revenue of the Oudh Forest Department in 1881 was £28,198, and the expenditure £21,703; surplus profit, £6495.

The fauna of the Province comprises most of the animals and birds common to the Gangetic plain; but many species once of frequent occurrence have now disappeared from this thickly populated tract. Wild elephants wandered till a very recent period in the forests which skirt the north of Gonda, and afforded sport to the Rajas of Tulsipur; now, this animal is practically unknown, except when a stray specimen loses his way at the foot of the hills. Herds of wild buffaloes which formerly roamed in the woodlands of Kheri, have long since been extirpated. Tigers once swarmed along the banks of the Rapti; but the rewards offered by Government have now lessened their number, and they have grown scarce even in the submontane region, being only found in any numbers among the wilds of Khairigarh. Leopards, however, still haunt the cane-brakes and thickets along the banks of streams as far south as the Gogra, and occasionally make prey of calves or pigs. *Nilgai* are found all over the Province, and in the north commit depredations among the crops. Antelope frequent the *usar* plains of the Ganges and the Gumti in great numbers. Innumerable flocks of teal and wild duck stud the *jhils* during the cold weather, and snipe haunt their reedy banks, though not so plentifully as among the rice-fields of Bengal. Jungle fowl breed in the forests of the Tarai, and peacock are found in every District. Wolves and snakes, the chief enemies to human life, are assiduously destroyed in large numbers; but their ravages still occasion much loss of life. The domestic animals include horses, cattle, buffaloes, donkeys, pigs, sheep, goats, and fowls. Immense herds of dwarfish cattle graze along the submontane belt, and are driven into the higher plateaux for the summer months. Herds of wild cattle, descended from the domesticated stock of villages depopulated under the native dynasty, yet wander among the jungles at the edge of the cultivated land.

History.—The legendary annals of Oudh date back to the very earliest period of Indian poetry. The sacred city of Ajodhya, from which the Province derives its name, lies close to the modern town of Faizabad, and forms one of the holiest places of the Hindu religion. Founded upon the chariot wheel of the creative god, it ranked as the capital of the Solar dynasty, a line of princes who descended from the sun and culminated after sixty generations in the incarnate deity, Rama. Whatever faith may be reposed in the legends embodied in the *Ramayana*,

there can be little doubt that the Province must have formed one of the earliest seats of Aryan colonization. The burial-place of Muni Agastya, a pioneer of the conquering race, is still pointed out near Colonelganj, a few miles north of the Gogra. At the dawn of history, Oudh appears as a flourishing kingdom, ruled over from Srávasti (SAHET MAHET) by a powerful sovereign. In its capital, Sakya Múni began his labours; and the city long remained a seat of learning for the disciples of the Buddhist faith. Six centuries after the first promulgation of the Buddhist religion, Srávasti contributed two of the great school of doctors who attended at the synod convened by the Scythian conqueror Kanishka in Kashmír.

Ptolemy (150 A.D.) apparently divides the central Gangetic basin between the Tanganoi or Ganganoi, whose southern limit was the Gogra, and the Maroundai or Marundæ, whose territories stretch on his map from Central Oudh into the heart of modern Bengal. The first-named people, whose boundaries correspond with the existing Districts of Gonda and Bahraich, seem to have been an aboriginal hill tribe, ethnically connected, perhaps, with the Thárus. The Marundæ were probably a Scythian race, and are known as a trans-Indus people. The information to be derived regarding India from Ptolemy's text and maps, except on the coast-line, can be trusted only when supported by other evidence. The statements in this paragraph are at variance with the opinions of Mr. W. C. Benett, to whose *Introduction to the Oudh Gazetteer* the following article is otherwise much indebted.

The epoch of Ptolemy coincides with the culmination and the downfall of Srávasti, a kingdom which for six centuries or more had maintained a high position among the States of Northern India. Vikramáditya (one of the several but unconnected Vikramádityas in Indian history), the last of its monarchs whose name has come down to later history, defeated Megliávahana, the powerful king of Kashmír, and restored the fanes and holy places of Ajodhya, which had completely fallen into neglect. The trans-Gogra kingdom, hemmed in between the river and the mountains, was cut off towards the south by the dominions of the Maroundai, who had their capital at Patna; and it was to them that Vikramáditya, or one of his successors, finally succumbed. A legend of Ajodhya faintly preserves the memory of a fierce and bloody war, in which the southern dynasty conquered the territories of Srávasti. The surrounding country became a desert. Two hundred and fifty years later, when the Chinese Buddhist pilgrim Fa-Hian (*circ.* 400 A.D.) visited Srávasti as one of the most famous historical seats of his religion, he found the once populous city still marked by lofty walls, enclosing the ruins of numerous temples, and palaces, but inhabited only by a few destitute monks and devotees (200 households). Hiuen Tsiang made a similar pilgrimage in the 7th century, and found the desolation complete. The approach to the ruined city lay through an all but impassable

forest, the haunt of numerous herds of wild elephants. The ancient history of Oudh closes with its subjection to Patna, and although it may be conjectured that after the fall of the last-named kingdom it formed part of the Kanauj Empire, no more is heard of its name as connected with any definite events until a much later period.

It seems probable that this break in the historical continuity of the Oudh annals coincides with the extinction of the ancient civilisation and the relapse of the country into a barbarous or even uninhabited condition. Forest and jungle appear once more to have spread over the former kingdom of Srávasti, and the aboriginal races at the same time recovered much of the territory which had been occupied from them by the Aryan immigrants. It is to the most ancient period before this relapse that should be attributed many of the remains of walled towns and forts which occur so plentifully throughout the Province. Local tradition, indeed, universally refers them to the Bhars, an aboriginal people of small stature, the last in the series of extinct ruling races in Oudh. This however merely means that they are regarded as possessing considerable antiquity and as antedating the Musalmán period. It can hardly be doubted that many of the ruins belong to the early Buddhist civilisation which preceded the dark age of Northern Indian history.

The modern chronicles of Oudh begin with the great struggle which ended in the overthrow of Kanauj. The fall of that famous empire, ruled over by the last native Hindu dynasty which could claim the whole country north of the Vindhya range, gave a final death-blow to the Buddhist faith and re-established the supremacy of the Bráhman creed throughout all India. During the Kanauj period the Province of Oudh once more reappears in history. According to local tradition, about the 8th or 9th century A.D. the Tharus, an aboriginal tribe, descended from the hills, and began to clear the jungle which had overgrown the deserted kingdom as far as the ancient city of Ajodhya. To the present day, these aborigines are the only people who can withstand the influence of malaria and so become the pioneers of civilisation in the jungle tracts. About a century later, a family of Sombansi lineage, from the north-west, subjected the wild settlers to its sway. The new dynasty belonged to the Jain faith, and still ruled at or near the ruins of Srávasti when Saiyid Salár, the famous Musalmán fanatic and conqueror, occupied Bahraich with his invading force. The remains of that ancient city, whose name has been corrupted into Sahet Mahet, are even now pointed out as the fort of Suhel Dál, the last of the Sombansi dynasty. Toward the close of the 11th century, Sri Chandra Deva, the Rahtor Emperor of Kanauj, subverted the Jain monarch's kingdom, and a local legend keeps alive the recollection of its last Jain devotees

still make pilgrimages to the spot, as the last stronghold of their faith in Upper India; while the only modern building which occupies a place among the mass of ruins is a small temple dedicated to Sambhúnáth.

Meanwhile, Mahmúd of Ghazní had been building up his empire in North-Western India, and the Hindu ruling races were succumbing in their outlying possessions. Immediately after the first Musalmán invasion, and the fall of the great powers which ruled in the upper plains, a Bhar kingdom arose in Southern Oudh, the Doáb, and the country between the Ganges and Málwá. The Bhars, like the Thárus, belong to the aboriginal tribes of India, and still exist in considerable numbers on the outskirts of the cultivated area. They occupy themselves in jungle-clearing and the chase; and their wide rule at this period seems to show that a forest then spread over almost all Oudh south of the Gogra. The rise of a low-statured, black-skinned race to power on the ruins of their Aryan predecessors, is not without parallel in other parts of India. But their sway was short-lived; and when they were overthrown by Nasír-ud-dín Muhammad, King of Delhi, in 1246 A.D., at last the firmer ground of Musalmán history is reached, under the guidance of Ferishta. The fall of the Bhars introduced the modern elements of society which still remain in Oudh. A number of small chiefships occupied the country, ruled by clans which, whatever their origin, laid claim in every case to a Kshattriya descent. Some of these, such as the Kanhpurias of Partábgarh, the Gaurs of Hardoi, and the Amethias of Rái Bareli, probably belong to tribes which flourished under the Bhar Government. Others, as the Bisens of Gonda and Partábgarh, appear to derive their origin from ancient Kshattriya families, long settled near their present homes. But by far the nobler houses, such as the Bais of Baiswára, the Sombansis of Partábgarh, and the Kalháns of Gonda, are shown by their traditions to have immigrated from distant parts of India.

After his conquest of Kanauj, Shaháb-ud-dín Ghori, or his lieutenant, overran Oudh in 1194. Muhammad Bakhtiyár Khiljí was the first Musalmán to organize the administration, and establish in Oudh a base for his military operations, which extended to the banks of the Brahmaputra. On the death of Kutab-ud-dín, he refused allegiance to Altamsh as a mere slave; and his son Ghiyás-ud-dín established a hereditary governorship of Bengal. Ajodhya, however, was wrested from the Bengal dynasty, and remained an outlying Province of Delhi. Thereupon a Hindu rebellion ensued, in which 120,000 Musalmáns are said to have been massacred. Prince Nasír-ud-dín was sent to crush the rebellion; and in 1242, Kamr-ud-dín Kairáu is recorded as Viceroy at Ajodhya. Thenceforth the Province remained an integral portion of the Muhammadan Empire.

From the date of the final Muhammadan conquest, in the beginning of the 13th century, the history of Oudh becomes extremely involved down to the establishment of the Nawab Wazirs upon the throne of Lucknow. It is true, the Muhammadan historians of Delhi supply a copious list of imperial governors and successful wars; while the local traditions of *parganás* give some account of the national life. But hardly any points of contact occur between the two. The foreign rule of the Delhi Emperors and their lieutenants took the place of the old paramount powers which formerly dominated over the local Rájás from Kanauj or Patna. The very memory of Hindu nationality in its wider form became extinct, and political interest was confined to the petty affairs of little baronies, no larger than the smallest principalities of Germany. On the other hand, the old and compact social system of the Hindus formed an effectual barrier against the dissolving influence of the Musalmán invasion. Although the foreign overlords reigned supreme over the whole country, the Bráhman still regulated the family life of the people, and the Kshattriya Rája still gathered their levies to battle, or administered justice in a court ruled by Hindu laws and observances. In spite of tyrannical governors or foreign wars, the cultivator tilled his fields as of old and paid his customary obedience to his Hindu lord. Thus the two streams of history seldom or never mingle in their course. The fortunes of the great Muhammadan vassals, who ruled over Oudh in the name of the Delhi Empire from BAHRAICH or MANIKPUR, belong rather to the tangled imperial story of the Afghán and Mughal dynasties than to provincial annals; while, on the other hand, the vicissitudes of the little Hindu principalities into which the country was parcelled out afford no material of interest for the general historian.

The newly established Hindu chiefs of Southern Oudh appear during the early days of the Muhammadan supremacy to have been engaged in a desultory warfare with the receding Bhars. As soon as the aborigines had been entirely subdued, the Muhammadan Kingdom of JAUNPUR rose beyond them in the valley of the Ganges. Ibrahim Sháh Sharki, the ablest of the Jaunpur rulers, turned his attention to the fruitful Province which lay in the direct path between his capital and Delhi. He attempted thoroughly to reduce Oudh to the condition of a Musalmán country. For this purpose he placed Muhammadan governors in every principal town and appointed Muhammadan officials to administer the unknown and hated laws of Islám. During the lifetime of Ibrahim, the most powerful chieftains fled from their homes, and the people sullenly acquiesced. But on his death the national spirit reasserted itself with all the native vitality of the Hindu creed and its social system. Rája Tilok Chand, probably a descendant of the Kanauj sovereigns, led the reactionary movement. Ibrahim's foreign gov

fell before the Hindu onslaught, and Tilok Chand established his own supremacy over the neighbouring chieftains. For a hundred years the land had peace, and the ruling Hindu clans established themselves more firmly in their hold, both by the erection of central forts, and by the planting of new colonies among the uncultivated tracts under the leadership of their younger branches.

Bábar's invasion of Oudh has left little historical record, owing to the mutilated state of the conqueror's memoirs. But a mosque at Ajodhya, on the reputed site of the birthplace of Ráma, preserves the name of the Mughal leader, and suggests the idea that the Hindu princes may probably have rallied around the most sacred site of their religion. In the troubled times which followed the death of the first Mughal Emperor, Oudh became the focus of disaffection against the reigning house. After the final defeat of the Afghán dynasty, and the firm establishment of Akbar, it settled down into one of the most important among the imperial viceroyalties. Akbar's great Revenue Survey contains full details of the fiscal divisions in Oudh. The *parganás* into which the country is still divided afford ample proof of the vitality inherent in the Hindu system, as they almost always coincide with the dominions of a native Rájá. Under the Mughal dynasty in its flourishing days, the Hindu chieftains accepted their position without difficulty. The empire was too strong for them to dispute its sway, and they were too strong for the empire to attempt their suppression. The revenue divisions preserved the limits of their petty States; and their authority, founded on the national creed, and engrained in the mental constitution of the people, could not fail to reassert itself on any change of government. The Mughals therefore endeavoured rather to conciliate the native princes than to drive them into rebellion. Their leaders received court appointments or commands in the army, while high-sounding titles and varying grades of dignity soothed the personal vanity of a people singularly impressible by such external signs of respect. The chieftain of Hasanpur Bandhua, descended from an ancient and honourable Kshattriya family, adopted the court religion, and obtained the recognised headship of the southern chiefs, with the right to confer the title of Rájá. But while the Mughal court thus secured the loyalty of the Hindu aristocracy, the strength of the central Government proved disastrous in another way to the power of the native clans. The younger branches of the ruling houses were enabled to throw off their allegiance towards the heads of their families, and to carve out for themselves petty principalities from the ancestral estates. When the Hindu element again asserted its independence, the ancient Rájás are found to have yielded to the more vigorous amongst the cadets, while the petty States have disintegrated into still smaller baronies, upon which the modern system of *taluks* or divisions presided over by feudal landowners bases itself.

The rise of the Marathás broke down the decaying empire of Aurangzeb, and the chieftains of Oudh at once acquired an almost complete independence. From time to time an energetic governor at Allahabad might endeavour to realize the revenue and justify the nominal sovereignty of Delhi; but the Hindu princes always met him in arms, and compelled him to relinquish the attempt. Meanwhile, the petty Rájas broke into internecine quarrels and the ablest leaders enlarged their territories by the conquest of their neighbours. Thus the Kanhpurias of Tiloi, the Bais of Daundia Khera and the Bisens of Gonda acquired States larger than any that had existed in Oudh since the consolidation of the empire under Akbar.

About the year 1732, Saádat Ali Khan, a Persian merchant of Naishapur, received the appointment of Subahdar of Oudh, and founded the Muhammadan dynasty which ruled down to our own time. His entry was opposed at first by the local Hindu chieftains; but the Bais seem to have yielded without a blow, and the Kanhpurias after a sham resistance, while the Khichars of Fatehpur—historically a part of the Oudh viceroyalty—were only quelled after a doubtful battle. In the north, the Rájá of Gonda actually defeated the Nawab's troops, and retained his ancestral State as a separate fief, on payment of a small tribute. Saádat Khán was also Wazir of the empire, an office which continued hereditary in his family. Before his death Oudh had become practically an independent State. Fyzabad was his nominal capital, but he seldom resided in the town, being constantly absent on military enterprises.

In 1743, Saadat Ali Khán died, and his son-in-law Safdar Jang succeeded to the office of Nawáb Wazir as well as to the principality of Oudh. A man of statesmanlike ability, he found himself exposed to constant attacks from the Rohillas on the one side and the Marathas on the other. But the country enjoyed great internal prosperity under its two first Nawabs, while the numerous wells, forts, and bridges which they built showed their anxiety to conciliate their Hindu subjects.

With the reign of Safdar Jang's son Shujá-ud-daula (1753), a new state of affairs commenced. The Nawab attempted to take advantage of the war in Bengal between the British and Mir Kasim, to acquire for himself the rich Province of Behar. He therefore advanced upon Patna, taking with him the fugitive Emperor Sháh Alam and the exiled Nawab of Bengal. The enterprise proved a failure, and Shuja-ud-daula retired to Buxar. In October 1764 Major Munro followed him up to that post, and won a decisive victory, which laid the whole of Upper India at the feet of the Company. The Nawab fled to Bareli (Bareilly), while the unfortunate Emperor joined the British camp.

regiment, and authorizing the Nawáb to resume *jágírs* but requiring him to grant equivalent pensions to *jágírdárs* whose estates were guaranteed by the British Government. This was taken advantage of by the Nawab for the resumption of the *jágírs of the Begams* (Shujá ud-daulá's mother and widow), which were subsequently in part restored, and for the spoliation of their treasures on the alleged ground of their being implicated in Chait Singh's rebellion. Warren Hastings' share in these transactions formed one of the charges against him on his impeachment.

The annals of the reigning dynasty from the time of Asaf-ud-daulá's removal of the seat of power to Lucknow have already been fully sketched in the article on LUCKNOW CITY (*q. v.*).

The succession of princes has scarcely any other interest than that of a list of names. Saádat Alí Khán, who succeeded his half-brother Asaf-ud-daulá (1798), threatened by Sindhia on the advance of Zamán Sháh to the Indus, concluded a new treaty with the British in 1801, by which he gave up half his territories in return for increased means of protection. Rohilkhand thus passed under British rule, and the Nawab became still more absolute within his restricted dominions. Saadat's son, Ghazi-ud-dín Haidar (1814), was the first to obtain the title of King. Násir-ud-dín Haidar (1827), Muhammad Ali Shah (1837), and Amjad Alí Sháh (1841) followed in rapid succession, and wasted away their lives in that alternation of sensuous luxury with ferocious excitement for which the court of Lucknow became proverbial. In 1847, Wajid Alí Sháh, the last King of Oudh, ascended the throne. The condition of the Province had long attracted the attention of the British Government. In 1831, Lord W. Bentinck had called upon the King for reforms, which, however, were never effected. Twenty years later Colonel Sleeman, the Resident, made a tour through the country, and reported most unfavourably upon its state. The King's army, receiving insufficient pay, recouped itself by constant depredations upon the people. The Hindu Chiefs, each isolated in his petty fort, had turned the surrounding country into a jungle as a means of resisting the demands of the court and its soldiery. The Resident was of opinion that the paramount power could not overlook the duty which it owed to the people.

The following extracts from Colonel Sleeman's Diary give a graphic description of the state of the Province in 1849-50, six years before it came under British administration:—

'The headmen of some villages along the road mentioned that the fine state in which we saw them was owing to their being strong and able to resist the Government authorities when disposed, as they generally were, to oppress or rack-rent them; that the landholders owed their strength to their union, for all were bound to turn out and

afford aid to their neighbour on hearing the concerted signal of distress; that this league, offensive and defensive, extended all over the Bangar district, into which we entered about midway between this and our last stage; and that we should see how much better it was peopled and cultivated in consequence, than the District of Muhamdí, to which we were going; that the strong only could keep anything under the Oudh Government; and as they could not be strong without union, all landholders were solemnly pledged to aid each other to the death, when oppressed or attacked by the local officers.

'The Nazím of the Tandiawán or Bangar district met me on his border, and told me "that he was too weak to enforce the King's orders or to collect his revenues; that he had with him one efficient company of Captain Bunbury's corps, with one gun in good repair, and provided with draught-bullocks in good condition, and that this was the only force he could rely upon; while the landholders were strong, and so leagued together for mutual defence, that at the sound of a matchlock, or any other concerted signal, all the men of a dozen large villages would in an hour concentrate upon and defeat the largest force the King's officers could assemble; that they did so almost every year, and often frequently within the same year; that he had nominally eight guns on duty with him, but the carriage of one had already gone to pieces, and those of the rest had been so long without repair that they would go to pieces with very little firing; that the draught-bullocks had not had any grain for many years, and were hardly able to walk, and he was in consequence obliged to hire plough-bullocks to draw the gun required to salute the Resident. . . . A large portion of the surface is covered with jungle, useful only to robbers and refractory landholders, who abound in the *parganá* of Bangar. In this respect it is reported one of the worst districts in Oudh. Within the last few years, the King's troops have been frequently beaten and driven out with loss, even when commanded by a European officer. The landholders and armed peasantry of the different villages unite their quotas of auxiliaries, and concentrate upon them on a concerted signal, when they are in pursuit of robbers and rebels. Almost every able-bodied man of every village in Bangar is trained to the use of arms of one kind or another, and none of the King's troops, save those who are disciplined and commanded by European officers, will venture to move against a landholder of this district; and when the local authorities cannot obtain the aid of such troops, they are obliged to conciliate the most powerful and unscrupulous by reductions in the assessment of the lands, or additions to their *nanark*."

'To illustrate the spirit and system of union among the chief landholders of the Bangar district, I may here mention a few facts within my own knowledge, and of recent date. Bhagwant Singh, who held the

estate of Atwa Piparia, had been for some time in rebellion against his sovereign, and he had committed many murders and robberies, and lifted many herds of cattle within our bordering District of Sháhjahanpur, and he had given shelter on his own estate to a good many atrocious criminals from that and others of our bordering Districts. He had, too, aided and screened many gangs of *budhiks* or *dakaits* by hereditary profession. The Resident, Colonel Low, in 1841 directed every possible effort to be made for the arrest of this formidable offender, and Captain Hollings, the second in command of the second battalion of Oudh Local Infantry, sent intelligencers to trace him.

'They ascertained that he had, with a few followers, taken up a position 200 yards to the north of the village of Abroni, in a jungle of *palás* trees and brushwood in the Bangar district, about 28 miles to the south-west of Sítápur, where that battalion was cantoned, and about 14 miles west from Nimkhar. Captain Hollings made his arrangements to surprise this party, and on the evening of the 3rd of July 1841 he marched from Nimkhar at the head of three companies of that battalion, and a little before midnight he came within three quarters of a mile of the rebel's post. After halting his party for a short time to enable the officers and *sipáhis* to throw off all superfluous clothing and utensils, Captain Hollings moved on to the attack. When the advance-guard reached the outskirts of the robbers' position about midnight, they were first challenged and then fired upon by the sentries. The *subahdár* in command of this advance-guard fell dead, and a non-commissioned officer and a *sipáhi* were severely wounded.

'The whole party now fired in upon the gang and rushed on. One of the robbers was shot, and the rest all escaped out on the opposite side of the jungle. The *sipáhis* believing, since the surprise had been complete, that the robbers must have left all their wealth behind them, dispersed as soon as the firing ceased and the robbers disappeared, to get every man as much as he could. While thus engaged they were surrounded by the Gohárs (or body auxiliaries which these landholders send to each other's aid on the concerted signal) and fired in upon from the front and both right and left flanks. Taken by surprise, they collected together in disorder, while the assailants from the front and sides continued to pour in their fire upon them, and they were obliged to retire in haste and confusion, closely followed by the auxiliaries, who gained confidence, and pressed closer as their number increased by the quotas they received from the villages the detachment had to pass in their retreat.

'All efforts on the part of Captain Hollings to preserve order in the ranks were vain. His men returned the fire of their pursuers, but without aim or effect. At the head of the auxiliaries were Pa[illegible]

Singh of Ahrori, and Mírzá Akbar Beg of Deoria; and they were fast closing in upon the party, and might have destroyed it, when Girwar Singh, *tumandár*, came up with a detachment of the special police of the *thagí* and *dakáiti* department. At this time, the three companies were altogether disorganized and disheartened, as the firing and pursuit had lasted from midnight to daybreak; but on seeing the special police come up and join with spirit in the defence, they rallied, and the assailants, thinking the reinforcement more formidable than it really was, lost confidence and held back. Captain Hollings mounted the fresh horse of the *tumandár*, and led his detachment, without further loss or molestation, back to Nímkhar. His loss had been 1 *subahdár*, 1 *havildár*, and 3 *sipáhis* killed; 1 *subahdár*, 2 *havildárs*, 1 *náik*, and 14 *sipáhis* wounded and missing. Captain Hollings' groom was shot dead, and one of his palanquin-bearers was wounded. His horse, palanquin, desk, clothes, and all the superfluous clothing and utensils which the *sipáhis* had thrown off preparatory to the attack, fell into the hands of the assailants. Attempts were made to take up and carry off the killed and wounded, but the detachment was so sorely pressed that they were obliged to leave both on the ground. The loss would have been much greater than it was, but for the darkness of the night, which prevented the assailants from taking good aim; and the detachment would in all probability have been cut to pieces, but for the timely arrival of the special police under Girwar Singh.

'Such attacks are usually made upon robber bands about the first dawn of the day, and this attack at midnight was a great error. Had they not been assailed by the auxiliaries, they could not, in the darkness, have secured one of the gang. It was known that at the first shot from either the assailing or defending party in that District, all the villages around concentrate their quotas on the spot, to fight to the death against the King's troops, whatever might be their object; and the detachment ought to have been prepared for such concentration when the firing began, and returned as quickly as possible from the place when they saw that they could not succeed.'—(*Sleeman's Tour*, ii. pp. 11–18.)

Before 1855, the chronic anarchy and oppression had reduced the people of Oudh to extreme misery. Reform by its native ruler had long been hopeless. The only remaining remedy was deemed to be annexation, with a liberal provision for the reigning house.

A treaty was proposed to the King in 1856, which provided that the sole civil and military government of Oudh should be vested in the British Government for ever; that the title of King of Oudh should be continued to his Majesty, and the lawful heirs male of his body; that the King should be treated with all due attention, respect, and honour, and should have exclusive jurisdiction within the palace at Lucknow

and the Dilkhusha and Bibipur parks, except as to the infliction of capital punishment, that the King Wajid Ali Shah should receive 12 *lakhs* a year for the support of his dignity and honour, besides a sum of 3 *lakhs for palace* guards, that his successors should receive 12 *lakhs* a year, and that his collateral relations should be maintained separately by the British Government. The King was allowed three days to consider and sign the Treaty. He refused to sign it and therefore, in February 1856, the British Government assumed to itself the government of Oudh, exclusively and for ever. A provision of 12 *lakhs* a year was offered to the King, which he accepted in October 1859. Separate provision has been sanctioned for his collateral relatives. Wajid Ali Shah has been allowed to retain the title of King of Oudh, but on his death the title will cease absolutely and the pecuniary allowance will not be continued on its present scale. Government has purchased a residence for the King at Garden Reach in the suburbs of Calcutta, the King has been allowed no jurisdiction within his estate, but provision has been made for serving legal process within its precincts, through the officer who is appointed as Agent with his Majesty on the part of the British Government. In March 1862, an Act was passed to exempt the King from the jurisdiction of criminal courts, except for capital offences, to provide for his trial if necessary, by commission, to exempt him from appearance as a witness in any court, and to provide for his examination through the Agent to the Governor General.

On 13th February 1856, Oudh became an integral part of the British territory. The country was immediately constituted into a Chief Commissionership, and organized on the model of administration that had been adopted in the Punjab eight years previously.

Early in the succeeding year, the discontent in the Province burst into open rebellion a fortnight after the mutiny at Meerut gave the signal for a general rising. In March 1857 Sir Henry Lawrence had assumed the administration at Lucknow and on the 30th of May five of the native regiments broke into mutiny. The remainder of the events connected with the siege and recovery of the capital have been narrated in the article on LUCKNOW CITY and need only be recapitulated here in brief. A general revolt throughout the whole of Oudh followed upon the defection of the native troops and by the middle of June the entire Province, save only the Residency at Lucknow, was in the hands of the rebels. On 4th July, Sir Henry Lawrence died from wounds caused by a shell. For twelve weeks the little garrison was besieged by an overwhelming body of mutineers, till relieved by Outram and Havelock on the 25th of September. In spite of this reinforcement, the British force found itself too weak to fall back upon Cawnpur, and the siege continued till raised by Sir Colin Campbell on the 17th of

considerable commercial centre, Lucknow, and entirely feeds its own teeming millions, besides allowing a large surplus of produce for export. The natural fertility of the soil and the salubrity of the climate combine to render the Province a thickly peopled tract and to turn all the industry of its inhabitants into the direction of agriculture. In 1881, 72.59 per cent of the people were agriculturists.

A review of the area, population, etc. of each District of Oudh is given in the table at the commencement of this article (p. 450), but the general results of the Census of February 1881 for the Province as a whole are briefly summarized in the following paragraphs.

Classified according to sex, the males numbered 5,851,655, and the females 5,536,086; total, 11,387,741. Classified according to age, the Census shows, under 15 years—boys, 2,229,232; girls, 1,974,472; total children, 4,203,704: above 15 years—men, 3,622,423; women, 3,561,614; total adults, 7,184,037. The religious division yields the following results:—Hindus, 9,942,411; Sikhs, 1154; Muhammadans, 1,433,443; Christians, 9060; Jains, 1623; Jews, 27; Pársís, 22; Buddhist, 1. There are no aboriginal tribes returned as such in Oudh.

In spite of the long subjection of Oudh to a Musalmán dynasty, the faith of Islám has far fewer adherents than in any other Province of Upper India. The Muhammadans indeed form only 12½ per cent of the inhabitants, but they have increased at the rate of 20 per cent for the twelve years ending 1881. As elsewhere, they are sub-divided among the four classes of Sayyids, Shaikhs, Patháns, and Mughals; and their scattered agricultural groups form centres of refuge from the degrading oppression to which Hinduism consigns the lower castes. There is said to be no active Islamite propaganda; but a small stream of Hindu converts—converts rather from necessity or interest than any religious feeling—is continually passing over to Muhammadanism. The Musalmáns, however, have lost greatly in social prestige since the downfall of the royal line. In the higher ranks they still number 78 *tálukdárs*. Some of these, as the Rájás of Utraula and Nánpárá, trace their descent from local chieftains, who long ago conquered for themselves places in the Hindu hierarchy, and differ in religion alone from their Hindu compeers. Others, amongst whom the great Chief of Hasanpur Bandhua takes first rank, belong to ancient Hindu families which changed their faith during the days of the Musalmán supremacy, to gain favour at Agra or Delhi. A few later houses owe their position to the offices which they held under the late dynasty of Lucknow. The Muhammadans still provide the British Government in Oudh with many of its ablest servants, and supply almost entirely the native bar at Lucknow. As cultivators, they are spread widely over the country, while as weavers they

share in the manufacture of cotton cloth. As landowners they have but a poor reputation, and are considered unimproving and litigious. The Census of 1881 distributes the whole Muhammadan population into 1,365,356 Sunnis, 68,038 Shiás, and 49 'unspecified.'

Even more significant than the small number of Musalmáns is the preponderance of Bráhmans, which marks out Oudh as a stronghold of Hinduism. The sacred class numbers no fewer than 1,364,783 persons, being about one-eighth of the whole population. In spite of their enormous social importance, as domestic directors of the whole community, they include only 6 among the *tálukdárs* of the Province; and two of these owe their wealth to the later days of Muhammadan rule. As cultivators they abound, but make undesirable tenants. One of their great divisions refuses to touch the plough, relying upon hired labour, and most are lazy and improvident. They supply good soldiers, however, and are often employed in trade. The Rájputs or Kshattriyas, once rulers of the Province, and now landholders of the greater part of it, rank next. Soldiers by profession and hereditary instinct under the old régime, they are now driven to live an idle existence upon estates too narrow for their increasing numbers, and compelled to submit to a poverty which ill accords with their traditions and feelings. In spite of their predominance in proprietorship, they form only about one-twentieth of the inhabitants. In 1881, according to the Census, they numbered 637,890. The Muhammadans, Bráhmans, and Kshattriyas compose together about a quarter of the population, the quarter which represents the higher social stratum. The remainder consists of the lower Hindu castes, the religious orders which stand outside caste distinctions, and the semi-aboriginal tribes.

Amongst the lower classes of Hindus, the Káyasths (147,432) and Vaisyas (237,497), or writing and trading classes, number hardly half a million. The Súdras or lowest class of Hindus include 1,185,512 Ahírs, whose proper duty consists in tending cattle, but who also engage largely in agriculture. The best tenantry and most industrious cultivators, however, are to be found amongst the Kúrmís (792,319) and Muráos, who together number in Oudh rather more than a million souls. They form the depositaries of the agricultural wealth of the Province, and, in respect of bravery hardly inferior to the Rájput, have fought well under British officers. Many other Súdra and mixed castes are represented by smaller numbers. At the base of the social super-structure are the aboriginal or semi-Hinduized tribes, the more or less pure descendants of the squat and black-skinned native race whom the Aryan colonists displaced. Some of these, such as the Pásís, who number 718,906, provide material for possible soldiers, and furnish the greater part of the rural police. Others, like the Bhárs (31,762) and

Thárus (27,000 in the united Provinces), live in small isolated groups on the outskirts of the jungle or the hill country, and hold no communication with the outer world The Nats (acrobats) and Kanjars (rope makers and trappers) wander like gipsies over the face of the country, with their small movable villages or wigwams of matting and leaf screens The Koris (341 108) and Chamars (1 129 250), weavers and leather-cutters, reach the lowest depth of all having been incorporated into the Hindu system as the most degraded class in the whole structure In the northern Districts of Oudh many of them still practically occupy the position of serfs and descend with their children as bound to the soil, having seldom spirit enough to avail themselves of the remedy afforded by our courts of law They hold the plough for the Bráhman or Kshatriya master and dwell with the pigs in a separate quarter of the village apart from their purer neighbours. Always on the verge of starvation their lean black, and ill formed figures, their stupid faces, and their filthy habits, reflect the long degradation to which they have been hereditarily subjected

The total number of Europeans in Oudh was 5446 in 1869 and 6361 in 1881, of Eurasians, 985 in 1869, and 1262 in 1881 Of the 6361 Europeans in 1881, males numbered 5234 and females 1127 The ratio of males to females is nearly equal among the Eurasians of the Province, of the 1262 Eurasians in Oudh in 1881, males numbered 594, and females 668 Most of the Europeans are in the service of the State, in a military or civil department Most of the Eurasians are engaged otherwise than in the service of the State

Occupation — The Census of 1881 distributes the adult male population of Oudh into the following six main groups —(1) Professional class, including State officials of every kind and members of the learned professions, 82,692, (2) domestic servants, inn and lodging keepers 22,454, (3) commercial class, including bankers merchants, and carriers, 74 719 (4) agricultural and pastoral class including gardeners, 2,827,720, (5) industrial class, including all manufacturers and artisans, 479 945, and (6) indefinite class, comprising all male children, general labourers, and persons of unspecified occupation 2 364 125

Town and Rural Population —Oudh contained in 1881 the following 18 towns with a population over 10 000 —(1) LUCKNOW, population 261,303 (2) FAIZABAD, 43 927 (3) BAHRAICH, 19,439, (4) SHAHABAD, 18,510, (5) KHAIRABAD, 14,217, (6) SANDILA, 14,865, (7) NAWABGANJ, 13 933, (8) BALRAMPUR, 12,811 (9) TANDA, 16,594, (10) RUDAULI, 11,394, (11) GONDA, 13 743, (12) BILGRAM, 11,067, (13) ROKHA JAIS, 11,044, (14) MALLANWAN, 10 970, (15) RAI BARELI, 11,781, (16) LAHARPUR, 10 437, (17) AJODHYA, 11 643, (18) HARDOI, 10,026 Later figures for the municipal areas will be found under their respective names Thirty seven other towns have a population exceeding 5

5000. The total population of these 55 towns in 1881 aggregated 770,540, or 6·7 per cent. of the population of the Province. Twenty-nine towns, with an aggregate of 626,938 inhabitants, have been constituted municipalities. Total municipal income (1883-84), £50,871, of which £37,691 was derived from taxation, principally octroi duties; average incidence of taxation, 1s. 2¼d. per head. Of the entire number of towns and villages (24,337) in Oudh, the Census of 1881 makes the following classification:—Containing less than two hundred inhabitants, 8114; with from two to five hundred, 9119; from five hundred to one thousand, 4982; from one to two thousand, 1694; from two to three thousand, 263; from three to five thousand, 111; from five to ten thousand, 36; from ten to fifteen thousand, 13; from fifteen to twenty thousand, 3; from twenty to fifty thousand, 1; and over fifty thousand, 1.

Of the larger towns, only one, Tánda, owes its prosperity to manufactures, and even this prosperity has rapidly sunk before the competition of English textile fabrics. Bahraich, Sháhábád, Khairábád, Sandíla, Rudauli, Bilgrám, Jáis, Sándi, and Zaidpur were originally military colonies of the Muhammadans, and now share the decay of the Musalmán power. Balrámpur, Gonda, Láharpur, Purwá, and Mallánwán trace their origin to little centres where grain merchants and money-dealers collected round the protecting fort of a Hindu chieftain. And Faizábád and Lucknow sprang up about the courts of the Nawáb Wazírs, who selected them for their residence. But the population of the country is essentially rural, spread over its whole surface in small cultivating communities. The Census of 1869 returned the number of separate hamlets at above 77,000, and the average number of inhabitants in each at only 150. The Census of 1881 followed a different classification in returning the number of villages in Oudh at 24,272, excluding towns. The village here meant may include two or more hamlets, and corresponds rather to the term *parish* used in England. In this sense each *parish* in Oudh contains about 437 inhabitants. The people are nowhere drawn together by the complex wants of our European civilisation. A few huts, clustering close to one another in the immediate neighbourhood of most of the fields, form the real unit of society. Small centres of trade, where the simple wants of the villagers may be supplied, occur at distances of 2 or 3 miles, and consist of a few mud cottages, together with the tiled and two-storied house of the grain merchant and money-lender. In their dwellings, as in their clothes and food, the wants of the people are very modest. Out of a total in 1869 of 2,610,000 houses, only 19,400 were of brick. Most of the latter were erected by Muhammadan settlers in the days of their prosperity. The Hindu chieftain fortified himself in an enclosure surrounded by a moat, and defended by a thick belt of prickly shrubbery; and though our peaceful rule has made the fort an anachronism, the

habits of past generations still influence the existing race The number of occupied houses returned by the Census of 1881 was 2,066,113, of which 145,826 were situated in urban localities. The purely agricultural element in the population is returned by the Census of 1881 at 72.59 per cent This element may be divided into 3 classes—landowners (4 per cent), cultivators (70 per cent) and labourers (26 per cent)

Agriculture—The year is divided into three harvests—the *kharif*, sown at the commencement of the rains and cut in September the *henwat* or *aghani* reaped in December and the *rabi* reaped in March But besides these regular season crops sugar-cane comes to maturity in February, cotton in May and *san* in or almost any month of the year The principal *kharif* staples are rice Indian corn, and millets Rice grows best on low stiff land where the water accumulates for considerable periods Its yield in good localities is returned for 1883 as 768 lbs per acre Indian corn thrives on a light soil raised slightly above the floods, and produces from two to four cobs on each stalk The smaller millets occupy inferior ground demand less attention, and produce a poorer out-turn In 1883 the out-turn varied from 879 lbs in Gonda to 407 lbs in Sitapur Fine rice transplanted in August from nurseries near the village sites forms the most valuable item of the *henwat* harvest The average yield is at least 20 per cent higher than that of the autumnal varieties, and the grain is smaller and better flavoured Contrary to the rule of the European market the price varies conversely with the size of the grain native taste preferring the smallest kind The other *henwat* staples comprise mustard grown as an oil seed, together with *mug* and *mash* two small species of pulse Wheat forms the main *rabi* crop an average good yield amounting to 634 lbs per acre over the Province Sugar which shares with rice, wheat, and oil seeds a first place among Oudh products, occupies the land for a whole year, being laid down in March and not cut till the following February It requires much labour and several waterings, but the result in ordinary years amply repays the outlay the produce of a single acre being often sold at over £10 In 1883-84 the average yield was 1371 lbs. per acre Sugar land in Bara Banki yields 2000 lbs per acre The poppy cultivation is extensive, and remunerative to the husbandman Numerous other crops are grown on small areas, and tobacco and vegetable fields surround the village sites Land sown with indigo yields an average of 79 lbs. per acre Hardoi is the richest indigo-growing District. Cotton land yields 53 lbs. per acre, the yield in Partabgarh amounting to 212 lbs. per acre The average yield of land laid in oil seeds is 241 lbs. per acre, and of land laid under tobacco, 550 lbs. In a purely agricultural Province like Oudh, where the absence of rain for eight months in the year precludes the growth

of natural grasses, much land is brought under the plough which would elsewhere be laid down in pasture. The average area of cultivation to a family is about 5 acres, ranging from 3 acres in Partábgarh to 8 acres in Sítápur. The total number of cultivated acres in Oudh in 1883-84 was returned at 9,819,786 acres, under the following crops:—Rice, 1,907,599 acres; wheat, 1,405,105 acres; other food-grains, 5,929,677 acres; oil-seeds, 175,955 acres; sugar, 146,779 acres; cotton, 56,790 acres; opium, 100,299 acres; indigo, 16,857 acres; fibres, 12,645 acres; tobacco, 10,739 acres; and vegetables, 57,341 acres.

In the same year, the average rent per acre was as follows:—For rice, 9s.; wheat, 13s. 3d.; inferior grains, 8s. 4½d.; indigo, 11s.; cotton, 9s. 9d.; opium, 19s. 6½d.; oil-seeds, 8s. 10d.; fibres, 8s. 3d.; sugar, 17s. 7½d.; and tobacco, £1, 2s. The rent for wheat land was highest in Bara Banki District (£1, 1s. 4d. per acre), and lowest in Kheri District (7s.); for rice land, highest in Bara Banki (17s. 9d.), and lowest in Kheri (4s. 5½d.); for cotton, highest in Partábgarh (13s. 9d.), and lowest in Gonda (6s. 1d.); for opium, highest in Sítápur (£1, 7s. 9d.), and lowest in Kheri (16s.); for ordinary inferior food-grains, highest in Bara Banki (12s.), and lowest in Bahraich (7s.).

The average prices in Oudh per *maund* of 80 lbs. were in 1883—wheat (first quality), 3s. 9½d.; wheat (second quality), 3s. 8d.; rice (first quality), 7s. 4½d.; rice (second quality), 5s. 6¾d.; sugar (refined), £1, 5s. 6d.; sugar (raw), 6s. 7d.; salt, 7s. 6d.; *ghi* (clarified butter), £2, 7s. 2d.; cotton, £1, 9s.; linseed, 5s. 6d.

The agricultural stock of Oudh in 1883 included 5,133,805 cows and bullocks; 1,263,541 sheep and goats; 517,681 pigs; 82,496 ponies; 15,770 horses; 54,185 carts; and 1,228,841 ploughs. Skilled labour is paid at the rate of about 6½d. a day; unskilled, 4d. a day. The hire of a cart with two bullocks is 1s. 2d. a day; of a camel, 11d. a day; of a score of donkeys, 4s. 8d. a day. A plough-bullock can be purchased for £1, 15s. 3d.; and a sheep for 2s. 2d.

Land Survey and Settlement.—The two great historical facts in the land history of Oudh are the first British annexation in 1856, and the pacification after the Mutiny. Oudh became a British Province only a few months prior to the rebellion; and the present revenue settlement, 'made upon the battle-field,' possesses rather the character of a political amnesty. When the British first took possession of the country, in February 1856, it was determined to effect a settlement of the land revenue, village by village, according to the system prevailing in the North-West Provinces. The desire was to deal directly with the actual occupants of the soil, whether petty proprietors or coparcenary communities, and to avoid the interposition of middle-men. But the great *tálukdárs* of Oudh, whose position was thus too much ignored, were

not mere middlemen employed by the State to collect revenue from the cultivators. Many of them heads of powerful clans, and representatives of ancient families, they were in truth a feudal aristocracy, based upon rights in the soil which went back to traditional times and were heartily acknowledged by their dependants. At the date of annexation, 23,500 villages, or about two-thirds of the total area of the Province, were in their possession; and at this day they hold and own nearly 60 per cent. of the area. The new Settlement after the annexation paid no regard to their claims. The great estate of Mahárájá Mán Singh, which included 577 villages and paid a revenue of £20,000, was reduced by the stroke of a pen to 6 villages, and the Mahárájá was left with an income of £500. Another ancient estate lost 266 villages out of 378; in a third 175 villages were confiscated out of 204; the result of the summary assessment thus made immediately after annexation was a demand of £1,054,800 land revenue. While this work of disinheritance was going on the Mutiny suddenly stopped operations. But it is not difficult to understand why in Oudh alone almost the entire mass of the landowning classes joined the Sepoys, and the mutiny became a rebellion.

When order was at last restored in March 1858 Lord Canning as Governor-General issued his celebrated proclamation confiscating the proprietary right in the whole soil of Oudh. The task of building up from the foundation a new system of land administration was entrusted to Sir Robert Montgomery, the first Chief Commissioner after the Mutiny, and was finally carried into execution in 1859 by his successor, Sir Charles Wingfield. The principle adopted was to restore to the *tálukdárs* all that they had at the time of annexation possessed, but in such a manner that their rights should depend upon the immediate grant of the British Government. They were invited to come to Lucknow under promise of a safe-conduct. About two-thirds of the number accepted this invitation and there concluded political arrangements with the Government, defining the mutual obligations of either party. On the one hand, the *tálukdárs* bound themselves to level all forts, give up arms, and act loyally; to pay punctually the revenue assessed upon them and the wages of the village officials; and to assist the police in keeping order. On the other hand the British Government conferred a right of property unknown alike to Hindu or Muhammadan law, comprising full power of alienation by will, and succession according to primogeniture in case of intestacy. The land revenue demand was fixed at one-half the gross rental; subordinate tenure-holders were confirmed in their ancient privileges; and a code was introduced to protect the actual cultivators from exaction. Such were the main features of the *sanads* issued by Sir C. Wingfield in October 1859, which constitute the land system of Oudh to the present

day, subject to a few minor modifications. The option of reverting to the Hindu or Muhammadan law of succession, or to the ancient custom of the family, has been granted to every *tálukdár*, subject to a record in the Oudh Estates List of the rule applicable to each estate; but the right to bequeath is still retained.

The detailed operations for giving effect to this Settlement were carried out by a revenue survey, begun in 1860, and finished in 1871. They resulted in increasing the amount of the summary assessment made immediately after annexation by 38 per cent. This survey was conducted both by villages and by fields. Out of the total area of the Province, which amounts to 24,246 square miles according to the latest returns, the entire assessed area of 23,239 square miles has been surveyed by fields, at an average cost of £3, 17s. 4d. per field; and 23,101·12 square miles have been surveyed by villages, at a cost of about £4, 6s. per village. The total revenue assessed upon the area of 23,239 square miles amounts (1883-84) to £1,449,135, showing an average rate of £62, 7s. per square mile. This is the estimated land revenue, according to Settlement returns. The actual demand and the actual receipts depend upon many circumstances, which vary year by year. In 1883-84, the actual demand was £1,416,075, and the actual receipts £1,405,048. The estates on the revenue roll are divided into three classes—(1) those held under the *tálukdári* rules described above, covering 60 per cent. of the area of the Province; (2) those held by ordinary *zamíndári* tenure, covering about 20 per cent. of the area; and (3) those held by *pattidári* and *bháyachára* communities and in fee-simple or revenue-free, covering the remaining 20 per cent. of the area. There are altogether 430 *tálukdárs* in the Province, of whom more than one-half, with an area of about 2½ million acres, hold their estates under the rule of primogeniture. The *zamíndári* estates, locally known by the name of *mufrid*, may be the undivided property of a single owner; but far more commonly they are owned by a coparcenary community, who regard themselves as descendants of a common ancestor. In the latter case, the whole is sometimes shared in common; and sometimes each member of the community looks after his own share only, leaving the common concerns to be managed by a *lambardár*, or head-man, who is responsible to Government for the revenue. In 1883 the number of *zamíndári* estates was 1340, besides 3007 *zamíndári* communities cultivating in common. *Pattidári* estates numbered 1032, and *bháyachára* estates 3687. Revenue-free estates numbered 1046; fee-simple estates, 52; while there were 22 holdings under the Waste Land Rules. The sub-tenures under these estates may be classified under five headings —(1) sub-settled villages, comprised within *tálukdári* estates, which have obtained recognition under the Oudh Sub-Settlement Act of 1866, and which cover 900,000 acres; (2) lands covering 450,000 acres held by

proprietors who have been unable to prove their right to the sub-settlement of a whole village, called *sir, daswant, nankar,* and *dihdari*, (3) groves covering 85,000 acres held by cultivators who by immemorial custom give the landlord a certain share of the produce, (4) lands granted, either by sale or as gifts for religious endowment, with full under-proprietary rights, (5) lands covering 240,000 acres held rent-free by village servants and officials. The number of tenants ejected by process of law from their holdings in 1883 was 12,203.

According to another principle of classification the total assessed area of the Province (23,239 square miles) is divided as follows with reference to the duration of the Settlement:—(1) Area settled in perpetuity, aggregating 1908 square miles, with an annual revenue of £87,457, or an average of £45, 17s from each square mile. The greater portion of this area represents large estates which were conferred upon loyal *tálukdárs* after the Mutiny at easy rates. (2) Area settled for a term of thirty years, expiring at latest in 1908, aggregating 21,185 square miles, with a revenue of £1,360,730, or £64, 4s 6d from each square mile. (3) 40 square miles with a revenue of £515 settled for periods between ten years and thirty. (4) 21 square miles with a revenue of £398, settled for less than ten years. (5) 85 square miles, still under Settlement in 1883–84.

The following is a brief description of the mode of conducting the Survey and Settlement, two connected operations which have everywhere gone on side by side. Two European officials are required—the Revenue Surveyor and the Settlement Officer—each with a numerous staff of native subordinates. The former measures the area of every village, and prepares two sets of maps, one on the scale of an inch to the mile, the other on the scale of four inches to the mile. These maps show the superficial marks of cultivated land, waste land, groves, roads, houses, and tanks. The Settlement Officer superintends the *khasra* or field survey, the unit of measurement being the *bigha* of Shah Jahan, equivalent to 3025 square yards. His special task is to consider the character of the soil, the methods of cultivation, the facility for irrigation, the means of communication in the present and in the probable future, the current rates of rent, the liability to natural calamities, etc. Then he assesses the revenue on each village, the guiding principle being to demand one-half of the gross rental. The registers he compiles include a record of all local rights and customs affecting inheritance, irrigation, fisheries, groves, and the appointment of village officers. These elaborate operations have been now practically concluded for the whole of Oudh.

According to the agricultural statistics for 1876–77, the total assessed area of the Province was 14,8[illegible],635 acres, or 23,256 square miles; the total assessment was £1,445,404, at an average rate of 1s 1[illegible]d.

per assessed acre, ranging from 2s. 9¼d. in the District of Bara Banki to 1s. 1¾d. in Kheri. In 1883–84 the area assessed was about the same (14,873,441 acres, or 23,239 square miles), the assessment being £1,449,135, at an average rate of 1s. 11¾d. per assessed acre, ranging from 2s. 9½d. in the District of Bara Banki to 1s. 1¼d. in Kheri. The total cultivated area in 1876–77 was 8,276,175 acres, or 56 per cent. of the assessed area, of which 2,957,398 acres, or 20 per cent. of the grand total, was returned as irrigated, entirely by private enterprise. The total cultivated area in 1883–84 was 8,274,467 acres, of which 2,957,765 acres were irrigated by private enterprise. There are no Government canals in Oudh. The rate of assessment on cultivated land averaged 3s. 6¼d. per acre in 1876–77, and 3s. 6d. in 1882–83. The total area of uncultivated land in 1876–77 was 6,609,460 acres, or 44 per cent. of the assessed area; in 1882–83, the total area of uncultivated land was 6,598,974 acres. This last figure includes 4,031,916 acres of grazing and cultivable land, and 2,567,058 acres of uncultivable waste. The average rate of assessment on cultivated and cultivable land together was 2s. 5¾d. per acre in 1876–77, and 2s. 4¼d. in 1883–84. The highest assessment on cultivated land was in Lucknow District (4s. 10d.), and the lowest in Kheri District (2s. 3d.).

Commerce and Manufactures.—Under native rule, trade in Oudh was practically non-existent. The only superfluities for export were salt and saltpetre, while the imports were confined to articles of luxury required for the court at Lucknow. It is said that in those days the imports exceeded the exports in value; but this must be accepted, not so much as a literal fact, as a lively indication of the impoverished condition of the people. With the introduction of British authority, though the opulence of Lucknow has declined, countless small centres of traffic have sprung up throughout the country. More especially, the opening of railways has permitted the agricultural wealth of Oudh to find a market even in countries so distant as Europe; while English wares of many kinds are received in exchange. The staple exports at the present day are oil-seeds, wheat, and other food-grains; the imports —cotton piece-goods, cotton twist, and salt. It is impossible, however, to quote any trustworthy figures showing the total value of the trade.

A brisk trade is also carried on with the independent State of Nepál, along the three frontier Districts of Kheri, Bahraich, and Gonda. The general policy of the Nepál *darbár* aims at compelling this traffic to be transacted at marts within its own dominions, of which the most flourishing are Golámandi, Bánki or Nepálganj, and Bútwal. At all of these a considerable number of Oudh merchants are permanently settled, whereas Nepálís rarely cross the frontier to trade, except for

the purchase of petty necessaries. Duties are levied in Nepál, either by load or by weight, upon all articles both of export and import, at an average rate which approximately corresponds to 7 per cent *ad valorem*. The right of levying these duties is farmed out to the highest bidder. It is said that they seldom vary, and being known to all concerned, do not operate as a hindrance to trade or as a means of extortion. The principal exports from Oudh into Nepál are Indian and European piece-goods, salt, sugar, tobacco, spices, and chemicals. The principal imports, which largely exceed the exports in value, are rice and other food grains, timber, oilseeds, *ghí* or clarified butter, metal wares, spices, drugs, and cattle.

No Province of India is more destitute of wholesale manufactures than Oudh. Excepting Lucknow, there is not a single town of the first magnitude, and there are few industries carried on by European capital, such as the preparation of indigo and tea. Indigo is rapidly developing in Oudh into a considerable and lucrative industry. The number of indigo factories in 1883 was 40, of which 6 were in European hands, the whole number affording employment to nearly 1400 persons. A paper mill recently established at Lucknow employs 340 hands, and in 1882-83 turned out goods to the value of £38,835. Weaving, pottery, and smith's work of a coarse character are carried on in many villages, but not to a sufficient extent to meet the local demand. Almost all manufactured articles of any merit require to be imported. The only specialities are gold and silver lace work, silver chasing, muslin (*[illegible]*), and rich embroidery, all confined to Lucknow. At Lucknow the well-known diamond-cut pattern of silver bangles is turned out, as well as the *bidri* damascened work in thin silver leaf and the *zarbuland* work in which the pattern is raised. But the city is best known in India for its gold embroidery. In 1882 the number of firms employed in this industry was 127, and the number of artisans, 683. The weaving of a peculiar class of cotton goods still flourishes at Tánda.

The Oudh and Rohilkhand Railway forms the great channel of communications. Entering the Province opposite Benares, the main line runs *via* Faizábád to Bara Banki and Lucknow. Thence it passes north-westward through Hardoi to Sháhjahánpur and Bareli, rejoining the East Indian system at Aligarh. A branch runs from Lucknow through Unao to Cawnpur, and another diverges at Bara Banki for Bahramghát on the Gogra. The whole railway thus forms a semicircular connection or loop-line between the East Indian and the [illegible]

[illegible]

and much traffic still passes along the great rivers which bound or

intersect the Province. The length of made roads in Oudh in 1884 was 5241 miles, and of railways 377½ miles.

Administration.—The land revenue demand under the government of the late king rose within the last ten years of his rule from £1,399,000 to £2,702,000 a year. In spite of this enormous nominal increase, however, the amount actually realized fell in the same period from £1,318,000 to £1,063,000. Practically speaking, no other taxes of any importance existed. When the British authorities took over the Province, a rough assessment was made reaching a little over £1,000,000. Officers were shortly afterwards appointed to settle the land revenue for thirty years on a more scientific basis; and at the conclusion of their revision, the net amount stood at about £1,500,000. This sum includes the revenue from 1908 square miles of estates in Oudh granted on a permanent assessment as a reward to their owners for loyal services during the Mutiny. Besides the land revenue (of which £1,405,048 was collected in 1883-84), the chief remaining taxes include the excise on spirits, which yielded £73,000 in 1876, and £114,603 in 1882-83; and the stamps on securities, etc., which brought in £93,000 in 1876, and £120,723 in 1882-83. Miscellaneous sources of revenue, which do not come under the head of taxation, produce about £65,000 more, the principal items being Government forests, £28,000, and post-office, £16,000. The imperial treasury also draws an income from two other sources, which, however, do not appear in the accounts of this Province. The Oudh peasantry must contribute at least £200,000 annually to the proceeds of the salt-tax; while the profit on the Government opium monopoly must amount to £500,000 more. Classifying these receipts under their proper headings, it may be said that actual taxation, including land, salt, excise, and stamps, yields altogether about £1,865,000 annually; while Government monopolies, which involve no drain on the country, make up about £600,000 more. The pressure of the land revenue assessment upon the cultivated acre in Oudh was 3s. 6d. in 1883-84. The total cost of civil administration amounts to £565,000, leaving a surplus of £1,900,000, or over 75 per cent. of the gross receipts. Local taxation in rates, cesses, octroi, and ferry dues, yields a further income of £375,000. In 1882-83, the demand for local cesses was £36,669, and for local rates, £65,925.

The administration in Oudh belongs to the general non-regulation type, under which a single officer unites fiscal and judicial functions, original and appellate. The Province contains 12 Districts, each under a Deputy Commissioner. These 12 Districts, again, comprise 37 *tahsils* or Sub-divisions. The Chief-Commissionership is now united with the Governorship of the North-Western Provinces; but the two offices remain distinct, though held by a single person.

The High Court, presided over by the Judicial Commissioner, forms the ultimate court of appeal. The number of suits instituted in the ordinary civil, small-cause, and rent courts of the Province was 85,17[illegible] in 1883; of this total over 30,000 were in connection with rent. Each Deputy Commissioner has at his disposal a small staff of European and native assistants, who aggregated 173 for the whole Province in 1884. The average population under the control of each Deputy Commissioner is little less than a million. In 1883 the total police force numbered 7685 officers and men, being 1 policeman to every 3·15 square miles of area, and to every 1482 persons of the population. The total cost was £78,99[illegible], of which £15,043 was defrayed from other sources than provincial revenue. The expenditure on buildings, communications, etc., by the Public Works Department was £79,963.

In 1877-78, the total number of schools of all kinds was 1423, attended by 64,571 pupils, being 1 school to every 17 square miles and 5·7 pupils to every thousand of the population. In 1883-84 the number of schools was 145[illegible], pupils, 60,43[illegible]. The Muhammadans, who form only 12½ per cent. of the population, supply 22 per cent. of the scholars. Lucknow possesses an important college founded by the *tálukdárs* in memory of Lord Canning, whose name it bears, with a separate establishment for the sons of *tálukdárs*. Almost equally efficacious in disseminating useful information is the private press of Munshi Newal Kishor at Lucknow, which prints a cheap and abundant literature for use throughout all India. An English newspaper, the *Express*, is published bi-weekly at Lucknow; and there were 14 vernacular periodicals published throughout the Province in 1884.

Municipalities have been established at the following 29 large towns:—Lucknow, Faizábád (Fyzabad), Tánda, Bahraich, Shahabad, Sandíla, Khairábad, Balrampur, Rai Bareli, Gonda, Partabgarh, Sitápur, Biswán, Dhaurehra, Unao, Muhamdi, Nawabganj (Bara Banki), Nawábganj (Gonda), Hardoi, Nanpárá, Utraula, Lakhimpur, Bhinga, Sultánpur, Nawabganj with Mahárájganj, Bilgram, [illegible], Mallanwan, and Pihani. In 1884, these 29 towns had a total municipal population of 626,938, and a total municipal income of £50,871, of which £37,691 was derived from taxation; the average incidence of taxation was 1s. 2¼d. per head.

Roughly speaking, the chieftains (*tálukdárs*) have retained three-fifths of the Province, while two-fifths have passed into the hands of a class intermediate between the cultivators and the chiefs. The village communities consist of large coparcenary societies, each containing a number of separate proprietors, who either hold their lands in common, dividing the net proceeds after payment of revenue and other charges, or else have divided the soil, and each separately collect

their rents and discharge their several dues.—See *Land Survey and Settlement.*

Medical Aspects.—The climate of Oudh is less damp than that of Lower Bengal, and has greater varieties of temperature. The year falls naturally into three seasons—the rainy, from the middle of June to the beginning of October; the cold weather, from October to February or March; and the hot season, from March to June. During the five years from 1868 to 1872, the maximum temperature was 118° F. in the shade, and the minimum 39° F. In 1881, the maximum temperature at Lucknow was 111° F. in the shade, and the minimum 35·4° F. During April, May, June, and July in that year the temperature was over 100° F. The heat proves most oppressive in the rainy season. The average rainfall, for a period of 14 years ending 30th September 1883, was 40 inches for the whole of Oudh, the highest being 49 inches in Kheri District. The heaviest downpours occur in July and September, but are extremely capricious. The average annual rainfall at Lucknow for the 15 years ending 1881 amounted to 37·5 inches, with a maximum of 65 inches in 1871, and a minimum of 22 inches in 1866. Government charitable dispensaries have been established in all the chief towns. Total number of hospitals and dispensaries in Oudh, 60 (1884); in-door patients, 9341; out-door, 347,665. The number of deaths registered in the Province was 334,768 in 1883. The number of deaths from cholera was 2882; from small-pox, 75,588; from suicide, 545; from snakes or other wild beasts, 1816. Total number of persons vaccinated (1884), 26,135, at a total cost of £1438.

Oudh.—Town on the Gogra river, in Oudh; properly Avadh, or AJODHYA (*q.v.*).

Oyster Reef.—A dangerous sunken reef off the coast of Arakan, in Lower Burma. An iron screw-pile lighthouse, constructed in 1876, is situated at the south edge of the reef in 4 fathoms at low-water springs, visible in clear weather for 15 miles. It is intended to make secure the western and northern approaches to Akyáb harbour. The light is a fixed white dioptric, and is elevated 77 feet above high-water level.

P.

Pa.—Petty State of Und Sarviya, in the Gohelwár division of Káthiáwár, Bombay Presidency; consisting of 1 village, with 2 separate shareholders. Estimated revenue, £255; of which £30, 14s. is paid as tribute to the Gáekwár of Baroda, and 24s. to the Nawáb of Junágarh. Two miles west of Jesar town. Population (1872) 416; and (1881) 300.

Pábar.—River in Bashahr State, Punjab. Thornton states that it

rises in Lake Charamai, near the Barendá Pass, and falls at once over a perpendicular crag in a fine waterfall. The source lies in lat. 31° 22′ N., and long. 78° 12′ E., at an elevation of 13,839 feet above sea level. The river flows in a general south-westerly direction, with a very rapid fall, through the most fertile and picturesque part of Bashahr, and finally joins the Tons, in lat. 30° 56′ N., and long. 77° 54′ E., after a total course of about 58 miles.

Pabná (*Pubna*).—District in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, lying between 23° 49′ and 24° 45′ N. lat., and between 89° 2′ 30″ and 89° 53′ E. long. It forms the south-east corner of the Rájsháhí Division, and is bordered along its entire east face by the main stream of the Brahmaputra or Jamuna, and along its south-west frontier by the Ganges or Padma. Area, 1847 square miles. Population (1881) 1,311,728. The administrative head-quarters are at PABNA TOWN, but SIRAJGANJ is the first place in the District, both in population and commercial importance.

Physical Aspects.—The District lies at the head of the Bengal delta, within the angle formed by the confluence of the Ganges and Brahmaputra. It is entirely of alluvial origin, the mud of the annual inundations overlying strata of clay or sand. Apart from the two great bordering rivers, it is intersected by countless water-channels of varying magnitude, so that during the rainy season every village is accessible by boat and by boat only. Almost the whole area is one green rice-field, the uniform level being only broken by clumps of bamboos and fruit trees, which conceal the village sites.

The river system is constituted by the Ganges and Brahmaputra, and the interlacing offshoots and tributaries of these two rivers. The Ganges, locally known as the Padma, skirts part of the west and all the south boundary of the District for a total length of 48 miles. Its chief offshoot is the Ichhámatí, which flows through Pabná town and joins the Harasagar, itself a branch of the Brahmaputra. This latter river, here called the Jamuná, forms the eastern boundary of the District for 32 miles. Its principal branch is the Harasagar, which in turn sends off the Karatoyá or Phuljhur, and joining the Baral and Ichhámatí, ultimately reunites with the Jamuná. Besides these rivers, the whole District is intersected by a network of minor watercourses which are navigable throughout the rainy season, and almost every place in the District is accessible by water during the rains. In the larger rivers, numerous *chars* have arisen, but no important islands have been formed. Instances of alluvion and diluvion are constantly taking place, and the streams themselves frequently change their courses. Old beds of large rivers abound throughout the District; some are dry except in the rains, while others contain water throughout the year. There are numerous *jhils* or marshes, by means of which the surface drainage is carried off

in a south-easterly direction into the large rivers. The three largest of these lakes are the Bara *bíl*, with an area of 12 square miles; Sonápátilá *bíl*, 6 miles; and the Ghughudah *bíl*, 4 square miles in area. These small lakes abound with fish and wild duck. The low lands along their margins are extensively cultivated, and rich crops of rice are grown thereon. These *jhíls* frequently represent old river beds, within which the main stream of the Ganges and Brahmaputra has formerly flowed. There are no embankments in the District, and artificial canals are not wanted.

The large game of the District consists of tigers, leopards, and wild hog, which are plentiful; and buffaloes and deer in small numbers. The most common game birds are geese, duck, teal, widgeon, snipe, quail, golden, silver, and grey plover, pigeons, doves, and ortolans.

History.—Pabná District is a comparatively modern creation of British rule, and possesses no real history of its own. It was first formed in 1832, at a time when the needs of an active administration were beginning to demand recognition. Originally it had formed part of the great District of Rájsháhí, which was the most extensive *zamíndári* in all Bengal when the Company obtained possession of the Province in the last century. But the hereditary Rájás of Rájsháhí, whose representative still lives in the family palace at Náttor, soon fell into default in the collection of the land revenue from their unwieldy estate, and portion after portion was brought to the hammer for arrears. Thus it happened that fresh families of landowners sprang up. And when it became necessary, for the speedier administration of criminal and civil justice, that new courts should be opened in corners remote from the original civil station, it was found comparatively easy to erect such new courts into the head-quarters of independent revenue divisions. In this way, Pabná and Bográ, and also many portions of adjoining Districts, were severed from Rájsháhí. The complete separation, however, was not effected all at once. A Joint Magistrate and Deputy Collector was first stationed at Pabná town in 1832, but this officer remained in some matters subordinate to the Collector of Rájsháhí. Many of the Pabná landowners long retained the privilege, as it was deemed, of paying their revenue into the parent treasury; and hence arose the anomalies of conflicting jurisdictions, which have not entirely disappeared at the present day. It was not until 1859 that the covenanted official in charge of Pabná received the full title of Magistrate and Collector. By 1845, the Sub-division of Sirájganj had been formed, which has since developed into by far the more important half of the District.

Frequent changes have taken place in the limits of the District jurisdiction. In 1862, the large Sub-division of Kushtiá, lying beyond the Ganges, was transferred from Pabná to Nadiyá; and in 1871, by the transfer of two more outlying *thánás* or police circles, that river has